

THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

VOLUME VIII

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THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Published quarterly by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

Volume VIII

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Reference to the minutes of the Forty-first Annual Meeting of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools held in Richmond, Virginia, December 3, 4, 1936, as recorded on page 24 of Volume I, Number 1 shows the following official action authorizing this publication.

Upon recommendation of the Executive Committee the Association voted to adopt the report of the Committee on Publications appointed at the fortieth annual meeting.

The Committee on Publications of the Southern Association unanimously submits the following recommendations:

1. That a Southern Association Quarterly be issued.
2. That a board of five members be held responsible for securing an editor and supervising all matters pertaining to the publication and distribution of the Quarterly. This board is to be composed of the secretaries of the three commissions, the president and the secretary-treasurer of the Association.
- 3, 4. (These sections recommended as to the character of the four issues and made appropriation for publication. See page cited above.)

In accordance with these resolutions a Board of Publication was set up, the editor elected, and the editorial committee constituted to consist of the President and the Secretary of the Association acting with the editor.

The Secondary School in War and in Peace

BY FATHER P. H. DAGNEAU

Principal, Marist College, Atlanta

The secondary school has at last come into its rightful heritage. What was considered a little child, carefully nurtured, coddled, and even a bit pampered, has suddenly grown up. To tell the truth, we are somewhat surprised at the stature it has attained. Unnoticed by us, this peaceful giant, pursuing its daily routine, helpful on all occasions, molesting no one, smiling serenely and benignly upon the surrounding sequence of events, has suddenly burst forth into a tower of strength when confronted by an unexpected challenge to fulfill a seemingly hopeless task.

When the treacherous attack of Pearl Harbor awakened this nation to the realization that it had a tremendous undertaking upon its hands, our country had to act quickly, and was obliged to gather together totally all its limitless resources in order to save the national life. Any other nation might have been thrown into despair. It could have fallen like a leaf in the autumn wind—as did many of the smaller countries at the opening of the European hostilities. We were practically unprepared and so well disposed towards other people that we could not conceive of treachery and of bad faith. Where could our nation find the millions of men needed for its defense? Where was the resourcefulness necessary to assemble the tremendous implements of war? Where must we turn for the brains and the sinews and the spirit needed at such a momentous period in our lives?

At this moment of crisis, our secondary schools stood out as the defenders of our land. They had, unnoticed, poured forth a stream of young men and women, equipped with mental and physical skills that needed only such a stimulus to weave them into a mighty machine of preparation and into a powerful bulwark of national defense. Men were needed to fly our planes, to man our ships, to go into war plants, to raise our crops, to expedite our transportation, and to enter into any of the thousand fields of necessary endeavor. Young women were called upon to replace the men in civil life and defense industries, to enter the armed forces, or to contribute their genius and their unsuspected God-given talents in places where these might do the most good.

And where were these young and dauntless defenders of home and right to be found? They were already here—the product of our secondary schools. With a mighty surge they seemed to spring from the very ground, well-equipped, eager, energetic, and ready to serve. For years our schools had

been filling up this huge reservoir of potential strength, perhaps unknowingly, and more likely unsuspectingly. (I realize I am giving a different picture from the picture drawn by those who rushed to condemn the schools for all the shortcomings of the early war-effort; but I am giving a picture that I believe is true.)

It is a long road—a century long—from the little red school house and the first religious schools to the present complicated system of secondary education. Our colleges, normal schools, and State Boards of Education have gradually built up an institution that seems Providential at the present time. A system of education primarily intended to broaden the lives of every American boy and girl, an instrument to teach our citizens how to live, how to work and how to play, has proved to be the means of forging mighty sinews of strength at a time of peril and of aggression. Our young men and women were found to be ready for the emergency.

It is true that our education was a peace-time education. It stressed the beauty and the usefulness of social concourse and wholesome business intercommunication. But it was like the vast industrial system that gradually grew up in this country. Our manufacturing plants, both large and small, were geared to the production of things essential, things that added beauty and pleasure to our lives. There were the automobile, and radio, and electrical devices to ease the burden of labor. There were thousands of little things that made living more worth while. And yet over night, all this vast and complex mechanism was turned into the channels of war, and soon there emerged that enormous tonnage of lend-lease goods, of ammunition, instruments of precision, gadgets of safety, and the many thousands of unsuspected devices that mean security and protection for our fighting men.

And in like manner, our secondary schools, working on a peace-time basis, suddenly found that all these acquired skills could easily be converted into factors that would mean the safety and security of our national life. Our high school graduates had the intelligence, the fundamental principles, and the fortitude to cope with a war-time situation. The many officer training schools, the aviation schools, West Point, Annapolis, were soon filled with young men just out of the high schools, and the evidence of their preparation in these schools is now measured by the deeds that they accomplish on land, on sea, and in the air. America had been preparing, but in a sphere little suspected by our enemies and not at all realized by our own people. The millions of boys and girls raised and educated in our secondary schools, made the difference between victory and defeat when the great moment of peril fell upon us. Education in our high schools evidently has been headed at least partly in the right direction. The years of experimentation, the training of the personnel, the curriculum research, the supervision of the accrediting agencies, the Church, State, and Federal aid, have all moulded a mighty bulwark of protection for the citizens who have been instrumental

in founding, maintaining, and encouraging our secondary schools. When the supreme test came suddenly upon us, it was an easy matter to make the few changes and adjustments necessary to meet the national emergency.

Our scientific preparation was already in full swing. The social sciences made the students alert to the importance of the crisis. Mechanical skills were being taught in thousands of schools; tinkering and playing with automobiles, driving, and repairing, brought about a familiarity with engines and extra parts, that made our boys the finest aviators and aeronautic mechanics in the world. Radio and electrical devices hold no mysteries to students accustomed to the daily use of them. Visual education has brought peoples, with their customs and traits, into the very lives of the American youth. Our schools have made familiar the instruments of progress and of education. The vastness of the world holds very few mysteries for this generation of boys and girls.

Intramural and competitive athletics deserve their share of credit for the physical stamina of our students. Some were unfit, but more were fit. Football and basketball, track, tennis, swimming, have had a prominent position in the school day program. They have taught the participants an alertness of mind, a desire to win, and the necessity of being physically fit. What more wholesome spectacle can be witnessed than the thousands of competitive games being played every day in the thousands of high schools throughout the nation? There is the careful physical check-up, the dental care, the supervision of coach, school doctor, or nurse. The enemy had in mind that our American people were soft and spoiled and not capable of meeting the shock and endurance of war. But little did they reckon with the talent and latent fortitude of our high school boys and girls. With three months of basic training added to the abilities acquired in their teens, our soldiers have proved to be as tough and enduring as any troops they meet. The skills acquired in competitive games now serve to invent and devise strategy unknown to the enemy nations. Our leaders use the quarterback sneak, the end around run, and many other "plays" very familiar to our former athletes.

Military training has had its part in the preparation of our boys for the war tasks. This has been especially true of the South where so many of the schools have offered the R.O.T.C. training to boys. Three and four years of daily training have made our students adept in the manual of arms, in military courtesy and procedure, in facility of movements, in obedience to orders, and in the many complicated processes of military discipline. This training has been one of the great factors contributing to the production of leadership. So often has it happened that hundreds of young men, just inducted into military service, found themselves members of the awkward squads. The officers in charge ask those with some military experience to

step out. The great opportunity has knocked, and those of the former R.O.T.C. divisions take over and whip those milling squads into formations of beauty and of precision. Leaders have been found, and from that moment on these men are marked for promotion and leadership. There are some who advocate compulsory military training in our high schools and colleges for the future just to have this potential reservoir of leaders if ever a similar emergency should arise again. Even in times of peace, we need leaders of men. In every community are needed men of vision and of initiative. Democracy means local ruling, local autonomy, local leadership, and therefore the local school should give this opportunity to aid and to build up such characters among men.

Thus far, for the preparation that has gone on unconsciously in our schools, training a vast army of men ready to meet emergency. And we mean by this not only the fighting men, because the great chemists, industrialists, strategists, giants of production and of transportation, also laid the foundations of their prowess in the secondary schools. Many of these geniuses have never gone beyond the high school grades, and yet they have performed a miracle of transformation, unheard of in the history of the world. The enemy may cut off the sources of rubber, silk, minerals, and raw materials, but to what avail, when the brains of men can simulate nature and produce synthetically what nature has kept secret for millions of years? The tinkering high school boy and girl, anxious to learn, curious to find out why, have laid the foundations that now produce the wonder of the ages, imitative nature. Now there is no distance too great, no depth too deep, no problem so acute, but that some day, some genius of our schools will stumble upon the answer. Truly indeed, have the schools been laying the foundations that mean today the final victory over those who would change our democratic mode of life. With a few adjustments, our schools now continue to perform this salutary task, adapted to present day war life.

What are the adjustments that have been quickly and easily made? The curriculum was the first to feel the impulse of the war-time shock. Even at the very beginning, when the first suspicions of war were in the air, a change began to take place. It was a coordination rather than a change. When the President of these United States began to sense the danger, and firmly advocated a sort of compulsory training, an increase in the navy, and an alertness in all things that savored of war-time preparation, the secondary schools began to take heed, and adjust their courses to meet the exigencies of the times. School meetings in hamlets and cities, in convention and out, took notice of coming events, and began a systematic preparation for the advancing conflict. Many helpful suggestions came from Army and Navy personnel, expert in training fighting men and in organizing the tremendous movement of material necessary for war. They told us what to stress and what to leave aside.

For a time it appeared as if the finer arts and cultural features of education would be thrown into the discard. It seemed for a while that we should be obliged to restrict ourselves to a Spartan mode of training, very hard and uncompromising in its nature. But it soon became evident that the finer side of learning was just as important as the rugged side. For instance, the soldier must be able to read and understand the orders given him. Therefore, a knowledge of the fundamentals of his native tongue was indispensable. The proper understanding of his vernacular language could mean the saving of life and blood. Grammar, composition, reading, all old fundamentals, again came to the foreground. The knowledge of foreign tongues became necessary when it was apparent that a score of different fronts were to be opened up. Interpreters were needed, intelligence men were required, contacts had to be made, and soon a call was issued for men whose skills included knowledge of foreign languages. Mathematics had to be stressed because of the precision and accuracy needed in sighting enemy objects, stationary and in motion. Astronomy, trigonometry, navigation, flying, all called for familiarity with numbers and calculations.

Science laboratories began to see the influx of new associations: aeronautics was tied up with the physics program; sanitation, gases, explosives, were working hand in hand in experimental chemistry. Health courses became tied to nutrition laboratories, in order to render future soldiers fit for physical endurance. Fundamentals of first aid and nursing began to multiply in the curriculum because of the fear of bombings and the danger of poisonous gases. Reading of weather conditions, foretelling change in weather, were made important because of the vast multitude of planes that would scour the air. Radio knowledge, and later on knowledge of radar, went into the high school program—and are going. How well we remember our astonishment on reading, during the first world war, that planes were talking to one another in the air and with their ground station. And lo, shortly after the armistice, radio became a part of our home equipment. The miracle of this second world war, radar, by which the approach and distance can be blindly seen in fog or darkness to the exact yardage, has changed over night the complexion of the war. Timidly at first, but yet with confidence and assurance, the curriculum began to touch upon these kindred subjects, and to open up the field, even though the efforts might be only primitive and exploratory. The versatility and pliability of our secondary schools soon absorbed, adopted, and made their own a new series of subjects that fitted well and even dovetailed into their scholastic life. New branches prospered at the side of the older ones. School buildings, laboratories, campus, faculty, students, soon began to manifest war-time activities. The whole secondary school picture began to blend into the wider panorama of all-out war preparations.

In order to give some concrete evidence of what secondary schools have been doing for the war effort, let us enumerate some of the uses of our facilities and some of the activities of our own particular school. Of course, we realize that what we are doing is trivial and insignificant compared to the extensive and varied programs now in full swing in many of the larger schools, yet the following outline will serve as an illustration of what can be done by any school.

Use of Buildings and Campus by

- (1) The Army Students Training Program—V-12, Dental Students;
- (2) The Navy Training Unit—V-12, Dental Students;
- (3) The Cadet Nurses, U. S. A., from three local hospitals;
- (4) The Civilian Air Patrol;
- (5) The State Defense Guard;
- (6) Air Warden Patrol;
- (7) Military Division of high school;
- (8) Victory Corps of two adjoining high schools;
- (9) Four Army and Navy pre-induction examinations;
- (10) Visual demonstrations and lectures by Army Division of Public Relations;
- (11) Public parades by band, military students, and Victory Corps to encourage sale of war bonds, Red Cross, and similar war drives;
- (12) Interscholastic athletic contests to stimulate physical fitness.

School Curriculum

- (1) Special emphasis on basic language skills;
- (2) Drills on basic computations, triangulations and Trigonometry;
- (3) Directing of sciences to chemical warfare and radio-electricity;
- (4) Aeronautics—theory and practice;
- (5) Meteorology—air map readings;
- (6) Physical fitness through exercise of body;
- (7) A true perception of issues of war and the objectives at stake;
- (8) Orientation—knowledge of motives for loyalty and spirit of sacrifice for successful issue of war;
- (9) Principles of citizenship and the desirability of a democracy;
- (10) Use of rifle—practice range;
- (11) Swimming, track, obstacle courses.

Faculty

- (1) Membership in various patriotic organizations;
- (2) Cooperation in the various war efforts;
- (3) Participation in local drives and demonstrations;
- (4) Air-wardens;
- (5) Faculty members serving after school hours as active auxiliary military Chaplains in the neighboring Army Camps;

- (6) Stimulating community service;
- (7) Administration in the Health Program;
- (8) Cooperation with local disease prevention;
- (9) Blood donors to Red Cross.

Students

- (1) Part-time work to aid man power shortage;
- (2) Membership in Victory Corps;
- (3) Sale of war bonds and stamps;
- (4) Cultivation of victory gardens;
- (5) Pledging cooperation in rationing;
- (6) Joining Army, Navy, and Air Reserves in anticipation of eighteenth birthday;
- (7) Application to study of Manual of Arms and military discipline;
- (8) Participation in inter-school rifle competition;
- (9) Use of photography, printing, developing;
- (10) First aid demonstrations;
- (11) Acquiring of nursing abilities;
- (12) Leadership in Boy Scout activities;
- (13) Use of library in study of war time geography;
- (14) Salvage of waste paper, fats, tin cans, etc.;
- (15) Dissemination of knowledge to break black markets.

This list of activities seems to be tremendous and far reaching, but when distributed over time and applied to a large student and faculty body, the effort for the individual is hardly noticeable. Many schools have far more varied activities, and their influence is felt in the home and community. Rural schools would offer crop management, meat raising, canning, and all the varied possibilities of farm and ranch. There is no end to the number of opportunities for cooperation in the all-out effort to attain final victory.

The problems of curriculum adjustment have been definitely and readily met. In fact, this new set-up may some day be considered an improvement over the past because it has a very well defined objective. Too much elective freedom has weakened the final outcome of many a boy's and girl's education. Immaturity, a natural indolence, and lack of proper faculty direction, have spoiled in a multitude of cases a well-rounded educational background. Now the children know what they need and what they want, and there is a marked improvement in results and achievements.

There are other problems that have not been so easy to solve, and which may not be sufficiently satisfactory until the war is over. The first one of these, is the teacher problem. This is a natural outcome of the man-power shortage. The schools with their highly specialized teachers, skilled in administrative social abilities, were a rich field from which to glean a harvest of men and women for active participation in the war or in the thousands

of positions needed on the home front. Principals, teachers, and coaches were material ripe as officer candidates. Women teachers were subjects of the highest type for enlistment into the WACS, WAVES, and SPARS. Administrative officers were enrolled by the thousands to become supervisors of construction, of personnel, of recruitments, of organization, of rationing, and of the multitude of new positions required by a vast expanding military regime.

For a time, it seemed as if chaos had struck the secondary schools. But here again, patriotism, good sense, and resourcefulness came to the rescue of a shaking edifice. Many fine former teachers, now married or retired, came back into the service and carried on where the others had left off. The State Offices of Certification gave fine cooperation by certifying emergency teachers capable of carrying on. The regional accrediting agencies were understanding and waived for war emergency standards that were difficult to meet. All in all, it is evident that the schools have weathered the storm and are surprisingly strong.

A far more serious problem soon began to manifest itself, the salary problem. When nearby war plants were offering wages and salaries at twice and three times the remuneration received by teachers, it is no small wonder that many teachers, librarians, and janitors left the schools to accept these more lucrative positions. This problem was accentuated by the rising cost of living, by the shortage of office workers, by the calling of men into selective service, and their replacement by trained women. State and local boards attempted to meet these conditions by raising salaries as far as funds were available. But funds have not been adequate, and today this problem is perhaps the most acute of all the problems faced by the secondary schools. Decreased income from tax sources, gasoline rationing, and the shortage of taxable items will make this problem more trying as time goes on. The solution is in the hands of those whose duty it is to provide for maintenance of schools and of education.

Another war-time problem that has been widely advertised and exploited, is that of child delinquency. Much controversy has taken place over this subject. Blame has been attached to church, to school, and to parents. Local authorities have been excited, newspapers have taken up the cry, school and civic organizations have debated the issue.

We have made a serious study of the whole problem and have come to the conclusion that the matter has been grossly exaggerated. Boys and girls are no worse today than they were ten or twenty years ago. To us it seems that there has been an improvement among the younger people because of realizing in part the seriousness of the outcomes of the next few years for them. Certainly boys and girls realize that they are facing a critical time in their lives and that they must make ready. In fact, there is an actual tone of seriousness and responsibility growing among the young

men and women of the teen ages. Those who do fall into mischief are those who would do so under other circumstances. There are those who cannot study, who will never see the seriousness of life, who would do wrong even in the best of environments. Some amount of evil, we shall always have with us. There may be some unrest among the younger students in the pre- or early high school stages. But our observation has been that, when the second year of high school is reached, there begins a realistic viewpoint of life and a willingness to cooperate.

In former years there were students with restless dispositions, unwilling to elect the more serious and difficult subjects, who liked to play, and who attended school for the sports and games that entered into the curriculum. These have often been the source of absenteeism and of delinquency. But now these restless natures have an answer to their dislike of books, to their love of adventure, and to the expression of their physical prowess. The Army and Navy have absorbed these boys and given them a different outlook in life. They are learning day by day in fields that appeal to them and which they enjoy.

Blame for delinquency cannot be laid to the church. Where there are parochial and church schools, students are constantly supervised and directed toward the highest ideals of good living. In the schools where there are no church affiliations, the responsibility rests either on the school or with the parents. The schools provide incentives, play supervision, objectives of interest, and guidance towards better citizenship.

Likewise the parents, who have sons and daughters in the armed service, knowing full well the dangers of war and the possibility of casualties, are paying more attention to the children. There is a marked upward trend in the interest in family ties, to child supervision, to moral standards, to church attendance, and to all those things that make to a happier home life and a better behaved community.

To us, it seems that the little flare-up of delinquency of a year ago was partially incited by the front-page exploitation of war worker absenteeism, by the public airing of isolated cases, and by the lack of coöperation from civic agencies that could have given useful outlets to children of playful minds. Play-grounds, healthy recreation facilities, boys' and girls' clubs, part-time work in connection with war aims, curfew hours, radio programs, are a few of the many aids to the safe and salutary use of leisure time for children accustomed to being engaged in activity of some kind. Much of the cause for any unrest and delinquency noticed in the secondary schools, comes from frequenting after school the soda fountains and coffee shops in the vicinity. In the cities, some drug stores are notable for the huge gatherings of boys and girls meeting in the afternoon hours. These places gradually become hang-outs on days when children choose to cut their classes. In some cases their presence constitutes a nuisance, while in others they are

encouraged because of the sale of soft drinks, cigarettes, and sundry articles. Up to this point little harm is done, but it is only one step to the next rendezvous, a pool-room or a place where stronger drinks are served. Derelictions of this kind have fanned the flame that caused the recent agitation against the high school boys and girls.

The remedy is to furnish wholesome supervised meeting places for those who are inclined this way. The writer's memory can go back forty years to when he was a member of a boys' club instituted for just such a salutary purpose. The memories that linger of the devoted public-minded sponsors, of the many happy hours spent in recreation, of the simple problems of work, of song, and days of picnics, are among the landmarks of his life.

Many cities have taken up this problem, which is not a new one. Many years ago in Chicago there originated a series of clubs, called the Catholic Youth Organization (C.Y.O.), which have spread as far as California, Louisiana, and even to the Eastern States. They offer athletic contests and opportunities, meeting places and general entertainment, so as to keep the young people off the streets or away from doubtful places. The secret of success is to make the club rooms so attractive that the young men and women will want to go there and will bring their companions with them. Other churches have organized young peoples clubs similar to these and are offering a substitute for uncontrolled or unsupervised meeting places.

The newest approach to a solution has been instituted recently by the students themselves. In Miami, Atlanta, and other cities, student councils are advocating the opening of gathering places, called, at the present time, in anticipation of a better name, Teen Taverns. They are similar in a way to canteens and U.S.O. clubs. In these buildings will be games, amusements, dances, soda fountains, and all those activities that fascinate and attract a growing boy and girl. This approach to the problem, coming from the students themselves, bears out the statement that the younger generation is more serious and dependable than we have suspected. The agitation against them and the accusation that the schools have failed seems to be not only unwarranted, but also quite unjust.

So much for what the secondary schools have done for preparation in the past and what they are doing now to meet the present day war situation. What about our schools when the war is over? What about the post-war problems that will surely confront us in a few years to come?

Right now, the proper thing to do is win the war, and we must make an all-out effort to attain this end. But sometimes people do plan and worry and become excited about what might happen to them in later years. They fret about events that probably will never come. "Sufficient for the day is the evil thereof." Let us remain calm and collected and make perfect the task of today. Yet we may cast a glance into the future and soberly contemplate the picture that might unfold itself.

There is no doubt that after a while there will be a shortage of jobs. When the armies gradually roll home and men are discharged from active service, they will need employment of some kind. A federal bonus and an accumulation of bonds will last just so many months. Millions of positions are now being skillfully filled by women and girls, and experience from the last war makes us realize that many women will be reluctant to abandon these positions. Accustomed to high salaries, fuller independence, and freedom of movement, they will not gracefully relinquish their labors to returning soldiers.

There will be keen competition for jobs, and there is where the secondary schools will feel the pinch. Young men will go out into the world, well trained, eager, ambitious, and will find nothing to do. The universities will absorb many of those in the higher brackets and wealthy classes. But what about the thousands of boys and girls of moderate means and from modest homes? Here will be a field ripe for the agitator, the law-breaker, and all that breed of underminers of morals and of religion. This will be one of the great national dangers, aggravated by the return of shell-shocked veterans who have been taught to kill.

What can the secondary schools do about this? I believe that an addition of two more grades, the thirteenth and fourteenth (junior college years), will give two more years for adjustment. The addition will serve as a break-water to hold back the tide for a time at least. These two years can be financed by local means, will give opportunity over a wider field, and will reach everyone now living in a high school district. They will keep boys and girls at home, within range of home and church influences. Credit for junior college work during these two years will enable those who persevere to fill the gaps within the universities, where a certain percentage is bound to fall out every year.

Another look into the future convinces us that some of the curricular changes brought about by the war could be very well continued in the years to come. We have learned to appreciate the value of fundamental concepts and processes. Accurate thinking, quick solutions, and logical reactions are necessary for success and are acquired by repeated drills in fundamental things.

There is a new age fast coming to us and that is the age of flying. The world will find itself thinking in terms of air. With a yearly production of 100,000 planes, and 3,000,000 men engaged in flying, the whole world will be more or less air-minded. Already we are changing our concepts of geography. No points on the earth are more than sixty hours apart. Men will fly over the poles and around the world. They will have breakfast in the Western Hemisphere and afternoon tea in the Eastern. South America will be a next-door neighbor to us. The inexpensive automobile of the pre-war days will stimulate the making of a moderate priced diminutive

plane to carry merchant and pleasure seeker to a multitude of lands. There will be need of language skills, of familiarity with foreign customs, knowledge of weather changes, aerial navigation, and dozens of courses that must be given serious consideration by the heads of our educational systems.

And now what about our returning soldiers? Many have enlisted or have been drafted long before their high school graduation. A certain percentage have expressed by poll their intention of returning to school. Will they be obliged to take up where they left off? Would it be wise to mingle indiscriminately older and harder young men with boys and girls who are not only younger in age but vastly younger in experience? Should special schools be designated, or particular classes be assigned to them? Many are the problems that will arise when that day of return comes. The solution may be in having evening schools, extension work, or shop and manual opportunities; but some solution the secondary schools must find.

When the armistice comes and the pre-war teachers return, what will become of them? No doubt many will desire their schools and the scenes they had left behind. But we have learned a lesson after World War One, when the depression came and positions were difficult to find. Many men and women with college degrees in subjects other than educational will want to enter the teaching field. There they will have a guaranteed income until better times return. Lawyers, doctors, engineers, and other professional men will attempt to enter the educational ranks and deprive trained teachers of their hard-earned right to serve in their chosen profession. In many states the law will take this situation into account. The Board of Certification will not certify any but those specifically trained, and will thus protect the places of teachers qualified as such. But the pressure will exist nevertheless.

This is an enumeration of a few of the problems that we may expect. "Watch and pray," should be our constant thought. Divine Providence has taken care of us in the past, and surely He, whose children we are, will not desert us when we bend our efforts to bring peace and happiness into the lives of men.

In conclusion, let us summarize our thoughts in this consideration of the relationship of the secondary school to the efforts of the war. It is gratifying to learn that our high schools have proved their worth, and have vindicated all the trust and hopes that have been placed in them. When war broke out, the schools were ready. They offered to this nation millions of young men and women capable of doing justice to the serious task of defending the constitutional liberties of their native land. The products of our schools were weighed in the balance and found not wanting. They are brave and efficient. They are quick and resourceful. They are the equal and perhaps the superior of any of the products of education in other lands. It may be that other countries will learn to appreciate the democratic ways

of American boys and will adopt many of our customs and institutions. It has already been announced that Great Britain is making changes even in the midst of war, so that her educational processes more nearly follow the democratic pattern of the American schools. Secondary school founders, builders, and administrators may well be congratulated on their wisdom and foresight. To them will go much credit for their contribution to the safety and the continuance of our national ideals.

In the second place, since our schools had already laid the foundations of national defense, it was not a difficult undertaking to orientate and point our efforts to a closer coördination with the final aims of victory. And the happy part of this is, that the orientation has met with universal approval. The only objection ever heard is that the federal government will use these means gradually to absorb control of the schools. Federal financial aid with a great system of supervisors and interference in curricular matters, *could* make us helpless victims of political bias. There is no need of proceeding further with this fetish of alarm.

The students seem to enjoy the new set-up. They take to it seriously. Their parents approve of the unusual phases of war preparation. In other words, it is a popular development of educational trends, and interference or no interference, the good results and the wishes of the people will prevail. It is my belief that much of what we are doing now will continue after the war because of popular demand and because of the tremendous beneficial results that even now are noticed on every side. Our curricula have been modified to meet the exigencies of the times. The changes seem to be wise. Therefore, let us continue to weave together the pattern of pre-war education with whatever contributions we are able to make while in the very middle of the stream of war.

Finally, in the third part of our thesis, we have reviewed the problems that might appear when the war days have ended. We feel sure that the secondary schools will be able to meet all emergencies. What is fundamentally solid will persist in being so, no matter what be the circumstances of time or place. If we can do a good job in times of war, we can do a better job in times of peace. So let us not be alarmed or distressed about whatever contingencies might arise. We did a fine piece of work yesterday, we are doing so again today; and since tomorrow will soon be our today, we can expect to continue our traditions of service and of preparedness.

To the men and women who devote their lives to the boys and girls of our secondary schools, must go the credit of a task well done. The young people who are the products of their toil and zeal will raise shrines to them within their hearts and will gladly pay tribute to those unseen soldiers who in the classrooms are making strong and safe the fortress of our home front.

Illiteracy: The Great Challenge to Southern Educators

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New problems are facing our schools and colleges at an ever increasing rate as this world struggle draws nearer its first great battle crisis since American participation. Needless to say that the war effort of this country calls for the supreme effort of every citizen from Albemarle Sound to the Golden Gate; from the Lake of the Woods to Key West; from Puget Sound to Brownsville. It must of necessity include all peoples making up the total population of this country—whites, blacks, browns, and yellows, including Protestants, Catholics, Jews and those with no professed religion.

There are many needs in the whole field of education, but the greatest of these is revealed in the lack of education in the lives of fifteen to twenty per cent of the total population in this Southern region. Over and over again this fact is pointed out to thinking people in such bold fashion that a person barely able to read should discern the chief weakness in the accomplishments of our educational institutions.

Since the present program of military expansion has been in progress, illiteracy has been a constant "drag" on the armed services. In this war those who have had no formal education constitute a military liability. One otherwise qualified must be up to a fourth grade level in order to perform the elementary duties of a soldier. The appalling numbers called up who are below this level constitute such a holding back of power that leading people in every walk of life should be aroused. In a region that has produced so many brave and fearless men, such a situation should not be the case. The educators of every state, county, and city school system along with the faculties and trustees of state universities and colleges, as well as private and church colleges of every rank and program should be stirred as never before. Wherever men have been rejected by Selective Service Boards, it means that state departments of education have not extended the benefits of public schools to the whole population.

Call the roll of the colleges—state, private, church—one and all must share in the responsibility for this neglected development of part of the population. The universities, the senior colleges, the junior colleges, and the public schools must get down to "brass tacks" and begin to take the "I.Q." of the unschooled. The next time a graduate student wishes to write a dissertation, let him make a survey on illiteracy in some appropriate area.

There is no doubt in the minds of many that this condition of illiteracy constitutes the greatest educational deficiency in the Southern region.

It is believed that not a single informed person disputes the urgent necessity of being able to read and write and use numbers in order to perform satisfactory military service. Conditions have changed greatly since 1917. In that year an infantry division consisted of slightly over 28,000 men. It had about twenty-eight automotive vehicles, and the remainder of its wheeled transport was animal drawn. It had then one piece of automotive equipment per thousand men. For communication it depended largely upon messenger and the telephone. The radio was very much an infant. The army marched largely on foot. In France certain reserve divisions were transported by motor in times of great emergencies, but in order to accomplish that task other organizations were stripped of their motorized equipment.

Today infantry largely marches on foot but great masses of men are transported by motor, and the epitome of the quick striking force, highly mobile, is the armored division. It consists of about 12,700 men. It has 19,000 guns, including 6,250 machine guns and submachine guns. It has 3,250 motor vehicles, in other words, one for each four men as compared with the World War infantry division of one per thousand men. It uses 100,000 gallons of high-test gasoline per day. Its consumption of ammunition is about 600 tons daily, compared with thirty-nine tons per day of the World War infantry division. It is, of course, entirely motorized. It uses radio as its means of communication. It requires a high degree of specialization. For example, a tank gun is fired automatically. The tank operator who fires the gun by utilizing a foot switch, should understand the principles of the solenoid—and understand them thoroughly.

The same specialization goes on through the arms and services. Truck drivers and truck maintenance men are required. Successful organization demands radio operators and radio maintenance men. Also, men highly skilled are required to operate in a field which three or four years ago was almost entirely pure theory. Illiterates are unable to fit into such a picture. Today ten million people in this country have a fourth grade education or less. This fact is doubly serious if we fully realize that intelligence is one of the keys to victory. Heretofore war has been so characterized by brute force that anyone physically qualified could take part. In this war we find the place of the illiterate extremely limited. Even in the manufacturing of implements of war, and in the operation of those instruments, there is little place for the man who cannot read and write. Men functionally illiterate are for all good purposes simply unlearned. There is no need for one to profess even elementary learning when that one can not perform in the field of elementary learning. In other words, the requirements of action cannot take for an answer, "I once knew, but I have forgotten."

There is no universally accepted definition of the term "illiterate." One finds in current reading varying percentages of illiterates given, depending on the basic concepts in the chosen definition. For instance, the *World Almanac* takes as its definition "a person ten years of age or over who cannot write in any language." It gives the following percentages of illiteracy in 1930 for the United States:

Negro	16.3 per cent
Native white	1.5 per cent
Foreign born	9.9 per cent

A more useful definition is that of "functional illiteracy." We say that one is functionally illiterate if that one cannot read and write on a fourth grade level. This view stresses the ability to read and write usefully, not the number of years of schooling. On this basis we find that *one out of seven adults in this country is illiterate*. There are sections where the rate is certainly as high as *one in five*. On this basis, taken from the 1940 census, we have in the whole country 10,100,000 functionally illiterate adults in the age group of 25 years and over. This represents 13.5 per cent of the total population in that age group. In certain states the percentage runs as high as 20. Racial illiteracy occurs according to the following percentages:

Native white	7.4 per cent
Foreign born	28.3 per cent
Negro	41.3 per cent
Others	35.9 per cent

It has been found also that while areas of the densest population have the largest number of illiterates, they do not have the largest percentages.

The Southern region has always contained the group known as "poor whites." Many persons who live in the higher economic brackets have purposely eliminated this group as undesirable by ignoring its existence. If all people are aristocrats, this group does not need attention. But there is an ever increasing group of writers, thinkers, and educators who believe the whole population must be taken into consideration.

Writers have generally recognized groups outside the aristocratic pattern. The "po' whites" are usually referred to as unlearned, rude, awkward, uncouth, and of bad manners. In the early nineteenth century, we find J. P. Kennedy taking some of his characters from the lower economic classes. He usually provokes laughter at the actions of the "sediment of population." A. B. Longstreet in his *Georgia Scenes* portrays the "Crackers" as an ungrammatical, fighting, "cussing" group. T. S. Stribling in *Bright Metal* puts into the words of one of his prominent characters a statement defining the origin of the poor whites when he says: "After the Civil War stopped slavery—these po whites moved down out of the hills and hollows and covered

our plantations like the plagues of Egypt—they're the sons of overseers, mule traders, small shopkeepers, who've got hold of the lands the aristocrats once owned. They're the po whites!" In the minds of other writers they are thought of as shiftless, lazy, lethargic, and generally unconcerned about personal or family improvement.

Frequently, it appears that writers tend to assume that all poor people of the South are poor whites. Recent studies and sociological surveys of those groups with a low standard of living have furnished much material for speculation and discussion as to the kind of people making up the total white population of the South. The question has been whether that group as resources are assets or liabilities.

The trend of even much present thinking follows the traditional pattern coming down from the Old South with its white population divided into three distinct groups, namely: planters and professional men, yeoman farmers and tradesmen, and poor whites. This line of thought, which the writer does not share, concludes that there has come to the South a heritage of undesirables, who are numerous and with little promise either for themselves or society.

It is true that this group has developed slowly, has been inarticulate, and therefore has, because of its status, left poor records from which to make an evaluation. As the plantation was expanded and extended, there remained those who could not push on to the prairie as pioneers, but who instead clung to the infertile land not usable by the planters, and, in some cases, squatted upon lands worn out and abandoned after the depletion of the soil's fertility. The economy of the planter system provided a *habitat* for every type of family, except the poor white. Generally the children of these families became the white illiterates. Many of them were of Scotch, English, or Irish descent. They loved freedom and therefore hid themselves away in the mountain valleys and coves where they would have a minimum of official interference. Practically all of them were nationalist in sentiment; and when the war between the states came, they sympathized with the idea of freedom and therefore hoped the Union would succeed. They felt that it meant better opportunities for those on a low income level. Most of them supported the idea of public schools when the war was over. Outside of the mountains they were "by-products" of the Southern plantation system, so far as the planters were concerned. They generally lived by primitive methods. As they grew in numbers they were usually an ostracized group on the outside of both the established political and economic order.

The other racial group from which the problem of illiteracy arises is that of the Negro. His story is so familiar to school people that it will not be discussed here as to origin and development.

The problem of illiteracy south of the Potomac and Ohio rivers is quite complex. In considering those males whose education is fourth grade or less,

one finds them concentrated, of course, where dense populations are located. Sparsely settled areas contribute fewer illiterates. But some facts in this connection should be considered. Some states with relatively small populations contribute greatly to the total number of illiterates. "In Louisiana, Georgia, and South Carolina over 30 per cent of men above 25 years of age completed less than five years of school." Other states are notably low in functional illiteracy. Thus in New York only 12 per cent and in Illinois only 10 per cent of males over 25 years of age can be classified by the four year criterion of schooling. Iowa has only 4 per cent in this category. In one community a higher degree of academic attainment is necessary if one is to be considered literate than is thought of in another where very meager standards are accepted for the literate.

Functional illiterates are contributed very greatly by certain racial groups. Thus 41.3 per cent of Negroes would be so classified while only 7.4 per cent of native whites are so classified. One need not search long for the cause. Negroes in certain sections are decidedly underprivileged in educational opportunity. Therefore, it is decidedly unfair to use the term "illiterate" as indicating lack of intelligence when describing the lack of opportunity of large numbers who may possess average or above-average ability. In some communities only minimum literacy skills are required for taking one's respectable place in an established order.

In considering these and other facts, there is need for careful investigation of both the nature and extent of illiteracy in each state. The same pattern may be not suitable for each state in the South. It seems obvious that when one community requires a reading and writing ability at the fourth elementary grade school level as a satisfactory standard, uniformity is difficult to establish when quotas are set for selective service purposes. On the other hand when an arbitrary standard is established, such as the completion of the fourth grade, the actual attainment as related to life may be anything but uniform. Or the completion of the fourth grade in one part of the country results in attaining a standard which is very different to that attained in four years in another section.

The opinion has been expressed that available statistics support the statement that ten to fifteen per cent of the total population of the country is at present functionally illiterate. The meaning of this has not yet been realized. Does this mean that ten millions of the population cannot take their places in a democratic society? Would we conclude that the remaining majority are functionally literate, and can, therefore, read and write sufficiently well to carry on as good citizens?

The response to all these questions will probably be, "I don't know." As a result, those who wish action are left largely at a loss as to the nature and extent of the situation. What is probably worse is the sad fact that at

present we are left with little knowledge as to what goal we should strive for in planning the work of the future.

What then is the proper course of action in order to overcome this difficulty? The following suggestions seem to be appropriate:

1. It seems desirable to set up adequate standards of literacy based upon functional requirements rather than upon an approved level of formal schooling. In other words, it should be determined what degree of attainment is desired in reading, writing, and arithmetic in order that a man may make a proper adjustment in an average American community. What are those standards in the average American community? If these questions cannot be answered at present, then the answers should be sought through careful and painstaking research.

2. What standards of attainment are necessary, so that after a man is beyond school age he will still be able to use successfully the skills that he has acquired while a student in school? Must the average person spend six or eight years in school in order to attain minimum requirements for an effective community life?

3. What level of academic attainment is desirable for intelligent participation in, and the enjoyment of life in an American community?

Answers to these questions must be found if society is to have an effective and socially useful definition of literacy. Perhaps it should be pointed out that any good standard of literacy should be based not only upon the ability to perform the mechanics of reading and writing but more particularly upon one's ability to understand and use language. Therefore, language use and understanding are important factors in setting up literacy standards.

Since there should be a definite relationship between functional literacy and instruction in the elementary public schools, an increased interest should be taken throughout the country generally in establishing more nearly uniform instruction during the first four or five grades. Attainment of this level should be expressed in a greater functional purpose, so that when attained the fourth grade level would actually be a useful concept in terms of a reasonable literacy standard.

Experience in teaching those who come into the Army below the fourth grade level has developed new methods. Special training units for the purpose of receiving needed basic instruction were opened by the Army throughout the nine service commands about July 1, 1943. The program was set up to bring those men up to a fourth grade level in order to give them minimum qualifications for military service. Once this standard is achieved they are qualified to begin where other inductees are when they first reach the Reception Center. At the beginning of this program there were 341,000 illiterates in the nation, physically qualified for military serv-

ice, who under present regulations cannot serve in the military forces. This number would make more than twenty divisions, perhaps enough to decide an important military issue. From July through December 19 of 1943, 13,445 were graduated in an average of eight weeks. Of this number 10,338 were Negro. The same report states on December 19, 1943 that 8,975 such students were enrolled. Of this number 6,631 were Negro.

In the Fourth Service Command there have been trained in the Special Training Unit Centers to February 29, 1944 the following:

TRAINING CENTER	ENROLLED		DISCHARGED		GRADUATED	
	White	Negro	White	Negro	White	Negro
Camp Shelby	4,402	4,615	834	231	2,110	1,822
Fort Bragg		8,657		546		5,913
Fort Jackson	3,483		106		1,826	
Fort Benning		15,660		1,054		10,512
Fort McPherson	1,931		282		1,175	
Camp Blanding	673		73		589	
Total By Race	10,489	28,932	1,295	1,831	5,700	18,247
Grand Total	39,421		3,126		23,947	

In this democracy of ours it should not be necessary to call on the Army to give training in the fundamental skills of reading and writing when there are so many school facilities in every state which could be used to do a better job.

Since the great majority of illiterates are among the racial minorities, states should accept their full responsibilities for those groups. In the registration of aliens throughout the country it was found that 700,000 signed their names with a cross. Other special problems exist among the Negroes of the South, the Mexicans of the Southwest, and Indians in some areas.

Not only is training needed as a basis for military service but would greatly improve vast numbers who are not in military service. It should be part of a program to prevent the further development of illiteracy. There is great need of effective programs of adult education that will reach all adult illiterates. Suitable texts should be prepared and effective programs organized.

At present there is great need for texts and other aids that are adapted to the adult point of view—aids based on the mature experiences of life. The use of children's text books for adults has been extremely unsuccessful, while those texts based on adult life problems are generally interesting and successful. Greater use of visual education techniques should be used. It is necessary to make progress rapidly so the student may apply his new knowledge to life's activities.

One cannot overlook the fact that such training has been done largely on a voluntary basis and hereafter may have to be placed on a compulsory basis as a last resort in reaching certain individuals. Some educators go so far as to advocate certain special training centers during the summer months when schools are ordinarily closed because plants would therefore be available for this purpose.

During regular school sessions, classes for illiterates are usually conducted after a normal day's work, and frequently under the adverse conditions of evening classes that are usually crowded, in classrooms that are badly ventilated and poorly lighted. Therefore, increased emphasis must be placed upon objectives. The individual must be made to realize that seven or eight weeks will yield him an important return if the program is to prove attractive.

Improved teacher training programs for adult education in elementary subjects are needed. Such instructors must have resourcefulness and great adaptability. Nowhere in the field of education is it so important that the teacher be capable of great flexibility in utilizing possible methods, and in understanding the attitudes of the learner. Those taking training for this type of instruction should become thoroughly familiar with (a) visual aids, (b) psychological procedures in interpreting student abilities, and (c) experience in building programs of instruction for individual training.

Finally, the public schools can and should assume full responsibility for a complete and effective program of literacy and citizenship education for all alien and illiterate residents of their respective districts. The program finally adopted should be based upon a complete survey of the situation. It should include a diversified program as needed, including classes for non-English speaking immigrants and native illiterates, public discussion groups, library service, adjustment counselling, social and recreational activities. These should be distributed as needed among public school classes and home classes for foreign-born mothers. The chief suggestion, therefore, in the Southern area is to quit playing with this situation, and courageously and boldly attack the most neglected field of education. Along with the solution of this problem will come the solution of a host of others.

Personality Problems of Soldiers and Their Educational Implications

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In spite of the obvious tragedy of war there are some fortunate aspects. One of these is a rapid advancement in scientific discoveries, particularly in methods of destruction and in medicine. What about our understanding of human nature? Does war make any contribution to our knowledge of how to improve the quality of living of men and women, as well as how to kill them? A conservative answer is that it does not, except indirectly by emphasizing the personality and character defects of those who are unable to make good in a military situation. It is common knowledge now that approximately one out of four or five of our rejectees from the military forces have been rejected for mental and emotional reasons. Some of these men have many excellent qualities and are able to hold responsible positions in civilian life, but they have peculiarities of personality which cause failure in military life. What are the nature of these peculiarities? Primarily they involve traits of dependency, social backwardness, and rigidity of personality structure.

All these traits are exemplified in a case of a young man who was brought before an army clinic in a camp in Texas. He was up for discharge on grounds of being a psychoneurotic. He had been placed on limited service, and at the time of his breakdown was in charge of making up the monthly pay roll for the men in his camp. However, he had failed on this job because he could never be satisfied that he had really done it right. He worried constantly for fear he had made a mistake. He went over his records eight or ten times to make sure he had not made an error. Then he would wake up at night and worry about possible mistakes. Sometimes after mailing a letter containing the pay roll, he would go and get it back from the post office. All this, in spite of the fact that he almost never found a mistake in his work after doing it the first time. Finally it became evident that he was emotionally unfit for work, so he was put in the psychopathic ward. When he was asked to explain his condition to the clinic, he said that he had always been very greatly worried about many little things. Everything had to be done in a certain prescribed manner or he became disturbed. He mentioned a long standing conflict with his wife over how to use the toothpaste tube. He insisted that it should be rolled up neatly from the bottom, whereas she insisted upon squeezing it in the middle. He made a great deal of this difficulty, but he said this was only one of many. His meals, his clothes, the running of the household had to be done in a sort of ritualistic manner. He was always very prompt and expected others to

be. He was greatly annoyed at small inconveniences. He was a very rigid person. He never enjoyed himself doing anything and never had any close friends, although he had a strong desire to be liked. He admitted that he had never planned anything in his life. He had just drifted from one thing to another. He never had a job that he did not just fall into. When he did not have a job, he just sat and waited for something to happen. He admitted that he probably would not have gotten married if his wife had not taken the initiative and practically made the proposal. He said that his marriage was a mistake and that his wife was as maladjusted as he was.

It seemed that this young man's difficulty arose from the fact that he was the favored child of the family and was overprotected by his mother. Having been favored over his two sisters for years, he expected to play a favored role wherever he went; he expected the way to be prepared for him without effort on his part. The older he became, the more he discovered that his point of view was not accepted by others outside his home, but he was unable to rise above the level of his emotional immaturity. He could not raise himself by his own bootstraps. Sensing failure, he retreated from obligations, built up rituals as a defense against his anxiety, and became a perfectionist in many little things as a compensation against his general feeling of failure.

The dependency and rigidity of this young man's life cover many of the personality defects of soldiers, but of course there are others. Some become homesick, wet the bed, cry, or develop some kind of functional disorder such as heart trouble, vomiting, fainting spells, headaches, or paralysis of legs and arms. Others are characterized by extreme fatigue from slight exertion, infantile behavior, excessive irritability, unreasonable depression, loss of memory, inability to concentrate, or a paralyzing fear of guns. Still others refuse to eat, acquire stomach ulcers, use alcohol and drugs to excess, show homosexual behavior, or unconsciously develop some kind of incapacitating phobia such as a fear of tying their shoes in front of others, saluting officers, or entering closed places. Occasionally, a soldier in desperation commits suicide, chops off a hand with an axe, or otherwise mutilates himself.

In actual combat there are some additional difficulties, particularly in regard to adapting the conscience to the fact of killing, accepting without undue disturbance the death of a comrade, and being able to tolerate fear. The first type of difficulty is illustrated in a boy who ran his bayonet through a German soldier's throat and then stepped on the German's head with his right foot as a brace in pulling out his bayonet. After the battle, the boy became paralyzed in his right leg. His sense of guilt was greater than his mind could bear. His paralysis, being an unconscious form of self-punishment, appeased his feeling of guilt, and also served as a respectable means of escape from similar situations in the future. A case of inability to adapt to loss of a comrade is that of a bomber pilot who kept unconsciously pulling

his plane to the right in his formation after his best friend, who had previously flown on his right, had been shot down. His inability to stop thinking of his friend caused him to be grounded. The capacity to accept the fact of fear and to keep going into positions of extreme danger in spite of the fear, is essential in military combat. Those who cannot stand fear, or who, on the other hand, try to deny to themselves and others that they are afraid, soon develop behavior disorders which render them unfit for military service. Those who try to deny that they are afraid may occasionally engage in desperate acts to prove to themselves and others that they are not afraid, and for which they are sometimes decorated for bravery; but fundamentally an army must be composed of men who can tolerate fear, who can live with it face to face, and who can get a job done in spite of it.

Reports from army officers and psychiatrists emphasize certain things over and over again as largely responsible for the personality failures of soldiers, such as: "never played in group games," "never had any fun—overly serious and overly conscientious," "fussy and sensitive," "unaggressive—the kind who would walk a mile to avoid a fight," "a mamma's boy all his life," "pampered by his parents," or "rejected by his parents," "never had any group loyalties," "never made a satisfactory adjustment to the opposite sex," "has felt inferior all his life—never succeeded in anything," "has developed a selfish, egotistic outlook on life."

What lessons for personality development can educators learn from the mental hygiene casualties of this war? One is that a high level of maturity for meeting life's demands is a consequence of a good general development much more than it is a product of any certain techniques. There are no particular devices or educational processes guaranteed to turn out heroes. The Nazis and the Japs thought they had an exclusive hero-producing formula in their emphasis on military ideology and their systematic training in cruelty and barbarism, but we have produced just as good war heroes, and more of them, by emphasizing instead the ideologies of peace and the practices of human kindness. It has been my privilege to listen to talks made by a number of men who have come back from combat areas, each of whom has been decorated several times for heroism on the battle fronts of the world—over Tokyo, Berlin, or the Rumanian oil fields. Not a one of them in a group of other young men would be picked out as a so-called "hero-type." They are just normal, sensible, American boys with a well-balanced emotional development, who never thought of themselves as heroes or as possessing any special qualities. Newspaper accounts of these boys throughout the United States often say in referring to one of them: "He would be the last fellow you would pick for a dashing hero." These "hero boys" may come from isolated farm homes in the open country, from small towns and tiny hamlets, or from the streets of our largest cities; they may be rich or poor, highly educated or of meager schooling, foreign or native

born. The only thing that really matters is the general level of their personality and character attainment which enables them to meet the demands of living wherever and however those demands may come.

It has been no small discovery of this war that the same personality and character traits which make for the highest success in meeting the problems of everyday civilian life in homes, schools, and industry are the very same traits necessary to success in military combat. This fact is encouraging because it means that a good general development provides the basis for meeting the problems of any kind of life regardless of how drastically different that life may be from any kind of specific training received.

Recently, I put my car in a parking lot and before leaving, I talked a few moments with the woman in charge of the place. She soon spoke of her son who was in the army and told briefly of how the war had changed their lives. She said she and her son had often discussed his life plans but among the possibilities which never entered their minds was that before he was twenty-one he would be fighting Germans in the mountains of Italy. She said it seemed useless to make plans for your children any more or to have them make plans for their future. But in this she was wrong, because the capacity to make plans and to set goals for the future is one of the most important aspects of emotional maturity. The attitude of drifting and waiting to see what will happen promotes childish dependency, laziness, and eventually an underlying fear of not being able to meet problems when they do arise. The young men and women today whose lives have been turned wrong side out by induction into the armed services, or by war conditions in general, and who are making the best adjustments, are not the ones who never had any plans to change, but rather those who have had a high sense of personal responsibility for directing their lives toward worthy ends. It is this sense of responsibility, together with the initiative and courage which are usually tied in with it, that is transferred to new situations. It is the men and women who have such personal qualities to transfer who are making the best records at home and abroad in the present conflict. The drifters, the psychoneurotics, and the weaklings are either not drafted, or are eliminated long before they reach the critical moments of combat. The gods of war insist that only the best be sacrificed on their altars.

What challenge is there in this for parents and educators? Certainly it is that homes, schools, and other community agencies must be much more concerned with the social and emotional development of our people, especially in childhood. Army psychiatrists emphasize that the great majority of rejectees for personality reasons had begun to fail in the art of living long before they entered the army, some of them before they were weaned. The army life simply adds to their stresses due to the breaking of old emotional ties to mothers, sweethearts, and sisters, the frustration of ambitions, and the necessity of winning status in a new group, the constant

associations with others with absolutely no privacy, the necessity of submitting to authority, the acceptance of monotony and routine—all this, plus the necessity of becoming skilled in the science and art of killing other human beings, a thing which they have previously held to be fundamentally against their conscience.

How can people be educated to meet such drastic demands upon their adaptability? Not primarily by studying any certain subjects which are supposed to liberalize the mind or to train the mind generally for all kinds of endeavors. On the contrary, the most important factors in developing that stamina of personality and character which enable a person to meet the difficulties of life with a strong heart and chin up are those personal and emotional traits which have their roots in early childhood. Briefly stated, the basic requirements for developing these traits are: clearly demonstrated but not over-protective parental affection; the nurturing of strong ego-feelings and self-assertion but stopping short of domination and unprovoked aggression; the provision for abiding group loyalties through experiences of group-belongingness, but with the preservation of independence of thought and action; the ensuring of adequate opportunities for the formation of intimate friendships with members of both sexes, but without setting up sociality as a paramount aim; the guarantee of a history of successful achievement in most tasks set up for individual or collective endeavor, but making sure that the tasks are not too easy nor arbitrarily imposed; and finally, the stimulation of idealism—of allegiance to ends higher than narrow self-interest, but not losing sight of the fact that genuine idealism is measured in deeds and not by the mouthing of verbalisms.

The individual who has experienced such a developmental history is able to transfer to each new situation in adult life a sense of confidence in his ability to do whatever is expected of him. He has confidence that he can make himself count in new groups, that he can win status and friends there, and that he is as good as the next fellow if not better. Having experienced "belongingness" and group loyalty throughout childhood, he is able to transfer this attitude and feeling of loyalty to larger groups such as the army, the navy, and his country. He is also able to maintain loyalty to that much smaller though highly critical group in the army known as "his outfit," when it faces combat—and every man depends upon every other man to do his assigned part or die trying. The loyalty and personal responsibility demanded in these crucial hours of combat constitute the most important reasons why the great selective man-power sieve in the military forces must constantly operate, in an effort to eliminate those unable to pass this strenuous personality test. Otherwise, too many who are temperamentally unfit would be placed in combat, with the result that the risks of destroying group morale and of losing their own lives are incurred, as well as the risk of causing death to others in their "outfit."

It is reported that one of our boys from the South Pacific was lying in a hospital in this country, having lost both his legs. A woman came in as a visitor and asked him how he lost his legs. The boy replied, "I didn't lose them; I traded them for my conscience." He might have said, "I traded them for group loyalty," for in this analysis, conscience is the result of group approval and disapproval. It is safe to say, too, that this boy had his share, or more, of idealism—that sense of obligation to some ends higher than narrow self-interest. Without some allegiance to the values involved in a situation, it is impossible to have good morale or the spirit of self-sacrifice. I agree with those who say that this allegiance to values is the most essential factor in good morale on both the civilian and the military fronts.¹ It is more important than participation in concrete activities connected with the war, more important than hating the enemy, trusting our leaders, buying war bonds, or believing in victory. Unless the great majority of our people have a deep seated conviction in respect to the importance of the values at stake in this war, other measures will not be very effective. And yet it must be admitted that many of our people do not have such a conviction that is very deep-seated or based upon much knowledge. According to attitude surveys which have been made in various parts of the country, there is a disturbing proportion of our adults who have only vague ideas as to what we are fighting for, and are only lukewarm in their support of the war. In one survey in the Chicago area, it was found that approximately fifteen per cent of the adults approached felt that our government not only could but *should* have steered a course which would have kept us from becoming involved in this war.² Such socially-minded illiterates, as well as the much larger group of luke-warm individuals, emphasize the failure of our education to stimulate the kind of idealism which promotes willingness to serve and sacrifice for our way of life. A nation at war measures itself and finds out what kind of people it has produced, and how strong are its national sinews. In this hour of trial we have found (and so have our enemies) that we are a great nation, but we have also discovered some serious weaknesses. Aside from physical defects and educational disabilities, which I have not discussed, we have found that far too many of our young men have fallen short of mature stature in social and emotional development.

We profoundly hope that out of this tragic world conflict will come means of insuring the extension of humane principles and democratic practices in the management of human affairs; but certainly those who are directly or indirectly responsible for those primary social institutions of the home, the church, and the school should be charged with negligence if they do not institute measures calculated to grow better men and better women. This, too, is necessary in order that these new dead shall not have died in vain.

¹ A. W. Kornhauser. "Chicago Surveys Concerning the Public's Beliefs and Desires About the War," *Bulletin of the Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues*, November, 1943, 378.

² *Ibid.*, 379.

These English Departments*

BY PAUL MOWBRAY WHEELER

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This study was inspired by an argument in a curriculum committee meeting. The question had arisen whether we should add a new course to the English department, and two or three members of the committee at once wanted to know whether Agnes Scott had similar courses and what the Florida State Woman's College thought of such an offering. Then followed the query for which everyone wished an answer: "How many colleges do list a course like this? Thumbing through the literature of several colleges in an attempt to satisfy my own curiosity, I decided suddenly to make a tabulation which would show comparatively what a number of English departments make available to students.

Obviously, some sort of restriction had to be placed on such an investigation because of limitation of time and space. It seemed at first most convenient to confine conclusions to those colleges and universities on the accredited list of The Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools issued December 4, 1942. As the work progressed, however, it became evident that further restriction was necessary, so only the sixty-four institutions in the southeastern states, namely, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, and Tennessee and in two cases [10, 59], Kentucky, were included.

Furthermore, as in most investigations of this kind, the task proved to be more difficult than was at first anticipated. The only readily available source from which the desired information could be derived was the catalogues, bulletins, announcements, and records of the various institutions. In forty-eight cases they are called "bulletins"; ten retain the older term "catalogue"; three use "record"; and one college uses a name, "Exponent" (33), explaining in a sub-title that it is a "catalogue"!¹ In several cases (8, 16, 38, 27), no description whatsoever, or very little, is included in the bulletin. One can not help feeling curious, for example, as to why Duke University, the University of Miami, the College of Charleston, and Guilford College should merely list courses without a word of explanation. Some

* There are no standards listed for college catalogues. What is the purpose of a college catalogue? This article gives the reaction of one professor of English who undertook to use college catalogues to find out how his course of study compared with courses of study in neighboring colleges. He felt pretty strongly that college catalogues should tell him clearly what was in a given course so that he could detect differences in purposes, methods, and content as compared to some course he might be offering of similar title. He gives us here an account of his findings—including his disappointments in not finding some of the things he hoped to find. He gives references at the close of the article to the catalogues he used. References are omitted where the comment is not related to the purpose for which the study was made, as in the case of the catalogue that happened to have the cover turned upside down!—EDITOR.

¹ Numbers refer to the list at the end of this article.

bulletins are difficult to understand either because of their complexity or because of their—to this writer—confusing arrangement (21). Other distractions were not lacking. One bulletin arrived with the pages upside down with relation to the cover, and one has adopted an irritating departure from custom by numbering its pages at the inside lower corner (9)! Moreover, official announcements in many cases seem more or less to be in a state of flux, changing even while this is being written. Bulletins like that of Birmingham-Southern, for example, change materially from year to year: certain courses disappear, others are added. These conclusions have been reached by examining 1941-1942 bulletins which invariably contain announcements for 1942-1943. No attempt has been made in this paper to indicate the length of courses (term, semester, or year), and likewise no distinction has been made between universities and colleges.

For these reasons as well as for others the conclusions presented in this article may contain unavoidable inaccuracies. It would take unnecessary time, stationery, and postage to make an exhaustive and accurate study of all details. We have done our best to approach correctness in so far as lay within the available means.

FIRST YEAR ENGLISH

Every department requires some sort of a course in fundamentals during the freshman year. The variety of names applied is interesting. Aside from the conventional and abominable "Freshman English," which is employed by eight institutions, there are various attempts at euphemistic disguise. "Foundation Course" (48), "Introductory Course" (59), "Fundamentals of Writing" (49), and just plain "Fundamentals" (57) are a few. The word *composition* appears often. All kinds of variations are played upon it. We find sturdy old "English Composition" many times, and we notice merely "Composition" just as often. But "College Composition" and "Rhetoric and Composition" and "Composition and Reading" occur almost as frequently. We confess a predilection for "English Writing" (47), and to a slightly less degree for "Reading, Speaking, Writing" (19, 35). Something can be said for any endeavor to make the approach to this beginning work more tempting, through the title at least.

Discussion of the subject matter of these courses needs the more expansive space of a special and detailed study, but we can glance at a few aspects which seem to be obvious in bulletin descriptions. For example, only five courses require little or no reading. Thirty require reading throughout the whole year. One of these demands reading in American literature only (31).

The purpose and plan are in most cases clearly stated. Almost without exception the emphasis is upon the "study of correct and effective writing" (30), and "teaching the student how to write correctly and effectively" (4). Or the aim may be stated as "a practical approach to problems of effective

speech and writing" (61), and a "discussion of correctness and effectiveness" (9). In the case of the three-term arrangement, the division is often into "mechanics" the first term, "organization" the second term, and "grace" the third (41), or "the sentence," "the paragraph," and "longer composition" (48). Stress upon appreciation of literature and the ability to read is often promised. The following statement is typical: "While the emphasis in this course is consistently laid upon training the student to write clearly, intelligently, and effectively, a concurrent effort is made to induce the student into an appreciation and thorough study of worthy literature" (59). Occasionally the purpose is more generally stated as "designed to furnish the training in reading, speaking, and writing necessary for the student's work in college and for his life thereafter" (21), or the procedure may be "inductive approach to reading and writing the English language" (25). The following appears to be as straightforward and lucid a presentation of purpose as we have met with: "To train the student in the use of correct, accurate, and effective language and to acquaint him with the various kinds of good writing" (11).

Ten departments offer sub-freshman English for students who are found by examination or class work to be deficient. The course is indicated by a variety of designations: "Minimum Essentials" (20), "Refresher Course" (48), "Supplementary English" (26). The subject matter, however, is invariably grammar and punctuation and spelling. It is nothing more nor less than a course on high school material added to the college curriculum. Except in two cases (20, 40) it is offered without credit. Sometimes it grows up into a writing laboratory to which any student can be sent if he is deficient in fundamentals. In most cases a student may be excused as soon as he has corrected the weakness for which he has been sent to the laboratory.

SECOND YEAR ENGLISH

Every department requires a course in literature during the sophomore year as a prerequisite for all other courses in literature. Three emphasize types (10, 14, 33). It is not clear in many cases what the procedure is, however. Four emphasize only a few of the outstanding authors (9, 32, 36, 59). Three offer in different courses more than one plan or different material to be covered (55, 62, 63).

Throughout the conventional survey courses there is a great deal of difference in the amount covered. Twelve attempt to proceed "from the earliest times to the present day"; eleven run through the Nineteenth Century only; three go to the end of the Eighteenth Century (1, 51, 57); four extend to the close of the Romantic Movement (14, 19, 30, 54); one runs only to the end of the Restoration (48); one confines itself to the Nineteenth Century (11); and one takes up only the Romantic and Victorian periods (2).

The most popular designation for the course is "Survey of English Literature," but a variety of other names occur, indicating specialized fields and procedure. Our attention has been attracted by one departure from convention which is called "Systematic Discourse" (34), is "required of all sophomores," and is a course in "outlining, library methods, and the form of research papers." Other titles are "Appreciation and Interpretation of Literature" (23), "Introduction to the Study of Literature" (17), "Development of English Prose and Poetry" (10), and "Development of Modern Literature" (2). Both Birmingham-Southern and Mississippi Southern have three courses: fiction, poetry, and drama; and prose, poetry, and drama respectively. At Birmingham-Southern poetry must be taken, with a choice between the other two; and at Mississippi Southern, American literature or (and) World Literature may be substituted.

In three colleges advanced survey courses are offered. Miami and Vanderbilt expressly state that these are intended for seniors; Vanderbilt limits its course to "senior majors." North Carolina says nothing about any restrictions. Clemson offers an advanced course in "Selected Masterpieces," which studies "selections not included in other courses."

Many of the sophomore courses include American literature as part of the work. Some offer courses in American literature required of all sophomores (35, 52, 57, 63). Emory has "a general survey . . . both prose and poetry" with "especial emphasis" on major writers, and the University of Alabama lists "American Prose Writers," which does not confine itself to either fiction or non-fiction prose. "Literary Masters of America" at the University of Florida deals with the "most eminent authors between Irving and Frost."

AMERICAN LITERATURE

The general course in American literature offered by most institutions is often in two parts, though the dividing line is hardly stable. Twelve accept the year 1860 as the terminus of the first half; one, 1800 (37); three, 1870 (13, 15, 16); two, 1865 (22, 47); three, 1950 (21, 29, 61). Others prefer to name an author as the mark of division: one each selects Whitman (18) and Emerson (64). In this category we like the alliteration of "From Freneau to Frost" (20). Nine courses lay special emphasis upon the Nineteenth Century. Seventeen cover the whole field from the beginning to the present, although this may be modified slightly, as in the case of Greensboro College, which stops at the end of "the first third of the twentieth century." Nothing can be made of the period covered from the descriptions in several bulletins (15, 16, 19, 34, 58).

In twelve courses emphasis is restricted to certain important writers. We have no means of telling who the "Major American Writers" of Mississippi State and Furman are, but there are several other courses described in more

detail, five centering on Emerson, one on Melville and Hawthorne (4), one on Poe (53), and one on Lanier (33). None of the five courses on Emerson is limited to that author alone. One includes Hawthorne, Poe, and Whitman also (13). One combines Carlyle and Whitman (52).

Five courses concentrate upon poetry, covering the field from "Freneau to Robinson" (44), from "Freneau to Sandburg" (53), and from "Bryant to Robinson" (52). The fourth course has no description (38). The University of Florida offers a course in "American Folk Songs."

Four courses concentrate on the novel (30, 33, 52, 55). Two deal with the short story in particular (16, 45). Three consider both the novel and the short story (3, 38, 53). There are two courses offered on non-fiction prose: "American Prose Masters" (3) and "Major American Prose Writers of the Nineteenth Century" (44).

There are three special courses on the American drama: "The American Theatre from Its Beginnings to the End of the Nineteenth Century" (4), and "American Drama" (3, 52). American drama is dealt with more extensively in general courses on the development of the drama in English, which will be discussed later.

Outside of these categories or only impinging slightly upon them are several interesting miscellaneous courses in the field of American literature. Two regional studies are available to students: one is on "The Literature of the East," and is concerned with the work done in "the Middle Atlantic Section" (55); the other is entitled "The New England Renaissance," and is a study "of origins of American literature and thought in Puritan New England . . . and the rise of the group known as the New England circle" (53). Catawba offers a study of "American Democratic Thought in Literature," which traces "intellectual influence of free men on the literature of a free country." The University of Georgia has a course on "The American Tradition," which is concerned with "the background of American Thought"; the description does not tell just what this means!

There are several seminars: "Problems in American Literature" (2), "Seminar in American Literature" (9), the tutorial courses in this field offered by Southwestern, and the "Special Studies in American Authors" at Duke.

Courses in contemporary American literature will be treated under the field of contemporary literature.

ADVANCED COMPOSITION

Duke, Mississippi Southern, the University of Georgia, Meredith, Vanderbilt, and Guilford offer courses in advanced composition but either give no clue as to their nature or merely say that they are "factual" or "creative" writing.

Other institutions, offering apparently the same kind of courses, use a wide variety of names to describe their offerings: "Advanced Composition and Creative Writing" (24), "Imaginative Writing" (20, 21), "Critical Writing" (55), "The Art of Writing" (53), "Effective Writing" (21), "Writing Workshop" (48), "Individual Problems in Writing" (38), and "Thesis Writing" (9). Twenty-one colleges and universities call their course simply "Advanced Composition," and sixteen call it "Creative Writing." Twelve of these devote the entire time, or almost the entire time, to exposition. More combinations occur than we have space to consider. Three courses group description and narration (12, 43, 47). Several attempt narration and the essay. Alabama State College for Women, Huntington College, and Georgia State College for Women add drama. Vanderbilt includes narration, the essay, drama, and verse, as does also the Citadel, although in separate courses. Centre and Rollins concentrate on the essay. Lincoln Memorial introduces character sketches, and both Lincoln Memorial and the University of Tennessee include criticism. The University of Georgia adds parody.

LITERATURE OF THE SOUTH

Twelve courses are confined to the literature of the Southern United States. The University of South Carolina offers two: "The Most Important Southern Writers . . . and Backgrounds" and "South Carolina Literature." Other titles which vary somewhat from the common "Southern Literature" ordinarily employed are "Literature of the South" (44), which attempts to "determine the South's contribution to permanent literature"; "Literature and Southern Life" (2), emphasizing "social backgrounds and themes"; "Literature and Society in the South" (55), which, in addition to social and historical backgrounds, emphasizes "pre-war journalists" and the "literature of the Reconstruction," as well as major writers; and "Southern Literature and Culture" (16), which has "nary" a word of description. There are, to be sure, various courses which stress the literature of the South along with something else; generally these are courses in the history of American literature. For example, in its "Survey of American Literature" Georgia State Woman's College places "due emphasis" on Southern literature; the University of Alabama in "American Literature" pays "special attention to the literature of New England and the South"; Davidson College in "American Literature since 1870" finds time to glance at the "poetry and prose of the South"; the University of North Carolina in "American Literature II" lays "special emphasis upon the literature of the South"; and Clemson College in "American Literature" puts "emphasis upon the literature of the South."

COMPARATIVE LITERATURE

Many type courses on the novel, drama, etc., are by nature partly comparative. These will be listed under the heading of *type courses*. There

are, however, several conventional courses in "World Literature" which attempt a general survey in translation of non-English classics. A few stress the Greek and Roman fields, whereas five bear down in addition upon the Medieval period. Two include the Renaissance (1, 42). Some of the titles used are interesting. In addition to the conventional "World Literature" and "Comparative Literature" used by many, the following have been noticed: "European Classics" (1), "European Literary Masterpieces" (64), and "Representative Masterpieces of European Literature" (59). Then there are "Survey Course in the Humanities" (24), "Classical and Medieval Backgrounds of English Literature" (9), and "The Humanities" (42), which attempts "to orientate the student in the culture of Western civilization by emphasizing the different traditions by way of Greece, Rome, the Medieval Age, and the Renaissance." "World Masterpieces in Literature" (38) and "Great Books" (7) may be anything, since they carry no description. "European Literary Masterpieces" (64), already mentioned above, studies the "outstanding monuments of our Western Literary heritage." Finally, there are "Masterpieces in Translation" (14) and "Classical Literature in Translation" (30).

Certain of these courses emphasize one type of literature. There is one each placing special stress respectively on biography (14), the epic (63), fiction (49), mythology (22), and there are two placing stress on the drama (36, 46). Two courses emphasize Dante (8, 35) and one, Goethe (35).

PERIOD COURSES

Middle English

There are many courses on Chaucer. Most of these are concerned largely with him alone and do not reach out to the age in which he lived any more than is necessary to the interpretation of his work; there are nineteen that apparently focus attention largely on the writer alone. Six give no hint as to whether any other stress is included. Those that do more indicate the extra work in various manners: "a grasp of 14th. Century thought and literary motivation" (11), or "sources . . . and literary and social background" (61). The author is examined also "in light of the age in which he lived" (10), and "the England of his day" (13), and his chief works are "studied against the background of medieval literature" (47).

Five courses are broader in their conception of the period. The University of Mississippi offers a "study of Middle English, with some attention to the development of Modern English" and "the reading of the works of Chaucer and other representative Middle English authors." Maryville studies "the leading types of secular and religious literature in medieval England, with special emphasis on Chaucer's *Canterbury Tales* and *Troilus and Criseyde*." Greensboro and the University of Chattanooga each offer

a course in both Spenser and Chaucer, and Catawba has one on Chaucer, Spenser, and Milton. Other similar courses are "The Middle English Period" (34), "The Literature of Medieval England" (55), "Earlier English Literature" (52), and "Old and Middle English" (37).

There are only two courses which definitely confine themselves to the *literature* of the Old English period in translation (9, 52).

The Renaissance

Seventeen courses consider the Renaissance in English literature. Thirteen of them, by their own statement, do not include the drama. The indication is not always clear whether Shakespeare is included or not, although occasionally a description distinctly states that a course is "a consideration of the principal dramatists other than Shakespeare" (64). The titles of these courses usually include the word *Renaissance*, but there are a few cases in which other designations are employed: "The Age of Elizabeth" (55), "Non-dramatic English Literature, 1550-1625" (16), and "English Poetry and Prose, 1550-1675" (63).

Almost every college offers a course on Shakespeare. Coker and the University of Chattanooga make their discussion of the dramatist part of the general survey of drama; Mercer, Duke, Miami, Guilford, and Alabama State College for Women include no description of their courses on Shakespeare. Duke offers "Shakespeare Problems" for "seniors and graduates only" in addition to its regular course on Shakespeare. Five colleges include consideration of the poems along with the plays. Five institutions also profess to put emphasis largely or entirely upon the tragedies. Seven state that both tragedies and comedies are included. Twenty-nine apparently are not restricted to the selection of any particular types. Six are not specific in their statement as to what type is emphasized.

Only four courses are available on Spenser alone (16, 21, 27, 46). Nine courses, however, pay special attention to Spenser along with other authors: one includes Milton (2); three include Chaucer and Milton (7, 9, 26); and one discusses both Chaucer and Milton in addition to Spenser (7). Southwestern has a tutorial course on "Renaissance Literature and Thought" which centers "around Spenser." At the University of the South there is a course on "Elizabethan non-dramatic Literature" which includes "Sidney, Spenser, Daniel, Drayton, Herrick, and Donne." At Queens "Poetry and Prose of the Sixteenth Century" lays "special emphasis on Spenser." Vanderbilt reticently announces that there is a course available on "Spenser and His Age" and says nothing more.

The Seventeenth Century

There are thirty-two courses devoted entirely or largely to Milton. Several of these are careful to state that Milton is studied as a "product of his

age," e.g., "Milton and His Age" (27), "Milton and His Times" (53), "Milton and His Contemporaries" (61), "Milton and His Century" (15), and "The Age of Milton" (25). More general designations are affixed to several courses: "The Restoration and the 18th Century" (10, 38), "The Seventeenth Century: Milton" (34), "English Literature in the Seventeenth Century" (26), "Seventeenth Century Lyric and Satire" (44), "The Literature of the Seventeenth Century" (56, 64), and "English Literature 1625-1700" (16).

The Eighteenth Century

Several courses concentrate upon the four major writers of this period: Dryden, Swift, Johnson, and Pope. Two are confined to Johnson and Pope and their ages (27, 34); one includes Dryden, Swift, and Pope (53); one considers Pope in one course and Swift and Johnson in another (44); one admits all but Johnson (21); and two are upon Johnson only (4, 17). Many of the courses, however, are more in the nature of a general survey of some sort. There are, for instance, five on "Eighteenth Century Prose," one on "Eighteenth Century Poetry" (36), and one on "The Beginnings of Romanticism," which is primarily for graduates and seniors and which covers the period from 1730 to 1800 (52). Several courses are merely called "The Eighteenth Century," "Literature of the Eighteenth Century," or some slight variation from these. Others are "Prose and Poetry of the Classical Period" (46), "The Age of Classicism" (2), "Restoration and Eighteenth Century Literature" (55, 59), "English Literature 1700-1780," and "English Literature from Dryden to Blake" (26).

Romanticism

"Romanticism" (14) has one course devoted to it whereas "The Romantic Movement" has fifteen, "The Romantic Period" nine, "Romantic Poets" eleven, "Romantic Poetry" eleven, and "Romantic Poetry and Prose" two. "The Romantic Revival" (27), "Early Nineteenth Century Literature" (43), "Literature of the English Romantic Period" (6), and "Nineteenth Century Romanticism" (52) each has one course. Three colleges indicate the period in years covered: Columbia College calls its course "English Literature from 1798 to 1832"; Duke uses "English Literature from 1790 to 1832"; and North Carolina employs "English Literature from 1780-1830." Two courses specify the authors: "Byron, Shelley, and Keats" (17), and "Shelley" (36). There are also five courses in "Nineteenth Century English Poetry" which, of course, may include some consideration of Romanticism (7, 11, 12, 26, 48).

Victorianism

Twenty-five general survey courses of the Victorian movement and period are available varying in scope from "English Literature 1800-1914" (45) to "Later Nineteenth Century" (11). In addition there are five courses

devoted to a consideration of both prose and poetry during the period (12, 29, 33, 38, 48). Nine are limited to a consideration of prose alone and twenty are restricted to poetry. Six courses emphasize Browning (4, 14, 20, 21, 22, 59). One is devoted to Tennyson alone (15, 52), and seven include consideration of both poets. Wofford College and Huntingdon College offer courses on each.

Contemporary Literature

Of the courses on contemporary literature seventeen concentrate upon American literature and eleven upon British. Sixteen seem to be of a general nature without special stress upon either. One of these has the interesting explanation that "the precise content of this course . . . is determined after the course is organized" (42). Several of them place so much stress upon special types of literature that further classification is necessary. The drama is particularly popular. Eight courses are listed on contemporary British drama, and only one on American drama (4). Eight are named, however, including both British and American drama; and seventeen, not only British and American drama but continental as well. Eleven courses are devoted to the contemporary American and British novel, three to the American novel (2, 4, 15) and five to the British (1, 10, 22, 25, 43). We suspect that the "European Novel" (15) does not include anything American or British.

There are twenty-one courses which include both British and American contemporary verse and only five which are apparently limited to American poetry (3, 22, 30, 35, 52).

TYPE COURSES

Literary Criticism

Nineteen courses are given in literary criticism. The variety of titles ranges all the way from "The Interpretation of Literature" (5) to just plain "Literary Criticism" (60, 64). Between are "Aesthetic and Literary Culture" (54), "Principles of Literary Criticism" (3, 31), "Literary Appreciation" (58), "The History of Literary Criticism" (59), and "The Principles of Literary Art" (46).

The Epic and Ballad

Only one course seems to be devoted entirely to the epic (33), but there are six courses on the ballad. One of these is accompanied by no description (16). Of the others, one is devoted to the American ballad (21), one to both the American and British ballad (55), and the others to the "English and Scotch Popular Ballads" (21, 46, 52). Duke lists "Folk-Lore and Folk-Songs" and the University of Florida "American Folksongs."

Biography

Biography claims eight courses. One of these is broadly comparative (23), two concentrate on English biography (16, 26), and one considers both

the English and American field (38). In two others the concentration is upon contemporary forms, along with earlier types (48, 52). It is difficult to judge from the description of the course in the Florida State Woman's College just what field, British or American, is covered. The statement is made that biography is studied "as a creative art. Its characteristics, origins, and expanding scope . . . important biographies are read with concentration upon those of the present time."

Children's Literature

In many cases these courses are offered in the departments of Library Science or Education. But there are sixteen given in departments of English.

Drama

Five general surveys of English drama "from the beginnings to the present" are listed, one "to 1780" (4) and nine "to 1900." Five are offered for the period from the beginning "to 1642." One extends "from the beginnings . . . through the Elizabethan and Jacobean periods" (35). Four courses have no description (2, 4, 16, 54); four are given on Elizabethan drama exclusive of Shakespeare (8, 21, 36, 53), and three include the dramatist (15, 52, 53). One is available on Marlowe (11) and one groups Elizabethan and Restoration drama (6). Four are localized in the seventeenth century. Eight are listed in comparative drama. Six of these stress or include Greek drama; one contains continental, British and American; one has a euphonic title—"Drama of the Western World"—and ranges "from Aeschylus to O'Neill" (19). There are four specific courses on American drama: one extends to 1912 (38), one from the "beginnings to the present" (3), and one "to the end of the Nineteenth Century" (4). There are also four miscellaneous courses on the drama. One is "The Study and Writing of the One Act Play" (35). Another is an "Introduction to Literature" course emphasizing drama, its standards, techniques, and masterpieces (51). In addition there are two courses on the Eighteenth and Nineteenth centuries: "English Drama from 1780-1880" (46), and "Sheridan and Goldsmith" (4).

Fiction

For twelve courses on fiction the description is vague or incomplete. Most of them, however, take as their starting point the beginning of the Eighteenth Century. Others are more extensive. There are, for example, those which extend from "Malory to Hardy" (62), from the "Elizabethan Period to the Present Day" (33), from "Its Beginnings to Thomas Hardy" (15), and from "Its Early Beginnings through the Nineteenth Century" (47). Two are more broadly inclusive in that they cover "all important periods," (57) and treat all "Representative English Novels" (28). Similarly, there

are a few which are more highly specialized: one deals with the novel "before 1850" (10), others extend from "Defoe to Disraeli" (52) and from "Defoe to Hardy" (32, 46, 48). Finally, there are two which emphasize the Nineteenth Century (17, 58), and one which stresses the Eighteenth Century (8). According to their descriptions, eight of these courses include both British and American fiction and five courses include the continental novel.

It is difficult to judge how much attention is paid to the short story in the above-mentioned courses. There are, however, several which are definite concentrations upon this form; and there are four which are apparently on the short story, but the description is inadequate or entirely lacking. The University of South Carolina offers a course which studies "the characteristics of the short story as a type." The Georgia State College for Women discusses its "history, technique, and study," and the University of Florida its "history, criticism, and appreciation." At least two courses include composition (33, 54). The University of Alabama stresses "the British Short Story." Georgia State Woman's College includes the continental novel also.

LANGUAGE

The history of the English language is covered in twenty courses. Four of these place stress upon "Old and Middle English" (2, 13, 34, 37) and two pay special attention to "current" and "modern" English (14, 17).

There are eleven courses in the *language* of the Anglo-Saxon period. Five of these refer to it as "Anglo-Saxon" (1, 16, 39, 52, 60) and six call it "Old English" (3, 4, 10, 25, 31, 44).

Five miscellaneous courses deserve special consideration. The University of Chattanooga has "The Development of Modern English" which concentrates "on Modern American English." The Citadel in "The English Language" examines "the infinite variety and complexity of the English language," discusses "derivation, pronunciation, form, and meaning," and treats "in an elementary way the historical background . . . and historical bases." Alabama College's "The English Language" is "a survey of the problems involved in acquiring mastery of the English language." The Woman's College of the University of North Carolina includes much more than the average survey of the English tongue. Its "Language" treats of the "origin and nature of language, the Indo-European languages . . . the influence of other languages" as well as "the vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation of the earlier periods of English as related to Modern English."

GRAMMAR

Eight courses are available in "Advanced Grammar" (2, 9, 19, 20, 23, 25, 45, 52). One of these is "intended for those who are going to teach" (20). One is "required of juniors" (45), and one is "a comprehensive study of present-day English Grammar" (15).

POETICS

Of the fifteen courses on poetics three are partly or largely composition (33, 39, 48). Many of the others state that writing may be taken up if desired. The designations range all the way from such simple appellations as "Poetry" (54) and "Verse Forms" (1) to "The Art of Poetry" and "An Approach to Poetry" (20).

Four courses which are more closely akin to the study of poetics than to the consideration of special types are offered on the lyric. Southwestern has "The English Lyric before 1700." Vanderbilt also limits its work to the period "from the Middle Ages to the Restoration." The University of Georgia's "Lyric Poetry" considers "types, techniques, and interpretations." Rollins includes consideration of the epic along with the lyric.

NON-FICTION PROSE

Furman offers a novel course entitled "The Familiar Essay" which covers the period "from Montaigne to Stevenson," but most courses are not limited to any one form of non-fiction prose. For example, the Nineteenth Century comes in for most consideration. There are ten courses on "Prose Writers of the Nineteenth Century," "Nineteenth Century Prose," and "English Prose of the Nineteenth Century." Two courses cover only the Seventeenth Century (28, 44). One extends from "The Renaissance to the Victorian period" (34). One is offered on Newman alone (54).

Much material is not so easily identifiable by periods. For instance, there is "Masterpieces of Prose Literature" offered by Rollins, which stresses biography, letters, prose tales, and history; "The Art of Prose" in the curriculum of the University of Mississippi, which is "a study of the principles and technique of prose style and of the various types of prose"; "The Introduction to English Prose" given by Mississippi Southern which includes the "essay, travel, biography, history, and fiction"; and "English Prose Style" by Howard College, which is a "chronological survey."

PLAY PRODUCTION

Some phase of dramatics is covered in each of nineteen courses. They answer to various titles: "Dramatics" and "Advanced Dramatics" (58), "Play Direction" and "Directing" (54, 64), "Play Production" and "Producing" (23, 61, 64). The University of South Carolina has a course on "The Modern Theatre" which is "designed to give the student a practical knowledge of the problems of acting, stagecraft, and voice control, and to correlate the varied aspect of the theatre with modern life and literature." It is interesting to note that Duke University lists its course under oral English ("Dramatics and Speech") and that the University of Miami relegates its offering to the Education department!

THE BIBLE

Consideration is given to the "Bible" in five courses. This bald designation (55) is usually qualified in some manner. Emory particularizes a little more than this by calling its course "The English Bible," and the titles of the others are even more specific: "Literary Study of the Bible" (64), "Literary Aspects of the Bible" (46), and "Literature of the Old Testament" (23).

READING COURSES

So many courses in "Guided Reading" are listed that classification is difficult. There is, for instance, in the same curriculum an emphasis upon the contemporary field and, in another course, upon poetry (2). Then, there are various reviews of literature: "Readings in English and American Literature" (64), "Review of English Literature" (17), "English Literature in the Renaissance" (53), and "Major Survey" (51). We suspect that "Seminar" offered by Birmingham-Southern is a similar course, although the complete absence of description leaves us speculating! Several colleges offer more than one course in "directed reading": the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina" lists three, Southwestern has four, and Shorter has two. Such a variety of titles abounds that only a complete list would do full justice to it. We mention only a few: "Special English" (38), "Directed Individual Study" (20), "Guided Reading" (2), "Special Topics" (28), "General Reading" (6), and "Courses for Honors" (46).

Four of these courses are with the avowed purpose of preparing the student to write a research paper. In fact, one is called "Thesis" (11), and another "Research" (3). We like particularly the title "Reading for Leisure," applied to a course which is offered at the University of Florida and "designed to aid the student in planning for himself a well-rounded, leisure-reading program, which will serve to keep him abreast of the best in contemporary thought and literature."

Special attention should be drawn to the "tutorial courses" at Southwestern. These were inaugurated in 1931 and are "an adaption to American conditions of the best feature of Old World education as carried on at Oxford and Cambridge." They provide the student "with opportunity for work along the line of his own individual interest, and at a rate of progress adapted to his abilities." Seven such courses are listed in the English department: "Great Books from Several Literatures," "English Literature in the Renaissance," "Colonial and Revolutionary American Literature," "Literature and Biography of the Eighteenth Century," "Readings in English Literature," and "Materials and Methods in Teaching English."

PROFESSIONAL ENGLISH

Forty-four institutions offer no course in Business English anywhere in their curricula. Seven English departments include it in their lists (11, 19,

21, 31, 32, 52, 57). Twelve Commerce departments claim such a course. Mississippi State College has a course in "Technical English," The University of Miami has "Scientific and Research Writing," the University of North Carolina has "Scientific Writing," and the University of South Carolina has "English for Engineers."

JOURNALISM

Many courses in advanced composition emphasize certain features of journalistic writing. Millsaps College has such a course which includes "various types of news stories." Limestone has one which covers the news and editorials. In two cases journalistic courses are offered in a sub-department (19, 62). The Georgia State College for Women offers five journalistic courses within the department of English. Howard College and the University of Tennessee each offers three. Six colleges list two courses within the department of English, and sixteen include one course only. These usually employ the word *journalism* in their titles to designate the nature of their offerings, but six of them call themselves "News Writing" or something very similar. Other interesting designations are "Writing for Publication" (47), "Mechanics of the Newspaper" (23), "The Newspaper in the Modern World" (23), "The School Newspaper" (23), and "Editing the News" (33). Both Clemson College and Mississippi State College offer a course in "Agricultural Journalism."

METHODS

In spite of the trend to consider methods an education course and to keep it in the department of Education, there are twelve colleges which include it in the departments of English. (Twenty-five apparently do not offer it anywhere and twenty-nine include it under education.) The nature of these courses does not vary much. They are invariably "Materials and Methods in Teaching High School English." Memphis State College describes a course in "The Teaching of English Grammar," and the Georgia State College for Women has a course on "Literature for the High School."

RADIO

There are only five opportunities to study radio writing in English departments. The University of Alabama has two, and Georgia State Woman's College, Birmingham-Southern, and the University of Tennessee each has one. Some of these include speaking also, but usually oral radio work is relegated to the department of the "Spoken Word." Georgia State Woman's College emphasizes "Radio Broadcasting and Management." The University of Alabama is unique in advertising a seminar.

ORAL ENGLISH

In at least seven cases oral English is offered in a sub-English department rather than in the department itself or in a separate department. The

University of South Carolina and the University of Chattanooga offer in this way two courses. Coker offers three. Duke University and Memphis State College list six each, and Spring Hill and the University of Georgia have eight each. Of those courses which are included in the English department itself eleven stress public speaking, seven place emphasis upon debating and argumentation, and three include both in the same course. There are five courses in speech correction and voice training (1, 23, 46, 55, 64). Four colleges have "Oral Interpretation of Literature" (1, 23, 55, 64). Agnes Scott has four such courses. Four institutions have work in "Advanced Public Speaking" (1, 10, 28, 46). Only one course is offered on "Phonetics" (1).

MISCELLANEOUS

One of the most pleasant aspects of this study has been discovering unusual and challenging courses tucked away among conventional offerings—often where one would least expect them. There are a surprising number of such, ranging all the way from "Edmund Burke" (59) and "John Morley" (59) to "The Nature of the Arts" (64), which is "a study of the aesthetic and critical background necessary for mature interpretation and evaluation of the arts." But the most surprising one of all to find in a department of English is "Russian Literature" in the curriculum of Florida Southern College—a year's course earning nine term hours credit. "Types of Humorous Literature" listed by the University of Florida sounds interesting. It is "an approach to the masterpieces of humorous [*sic*] literature, with some attention to the nature and function of humor and to its various types." "The Medieval Romance in English" (46) can perhaps justify its inclusion in offerings of English departments, but we wonder a little whether "The Platonic Tradition in Spenser and Shelley" (20) should not be a graduate course. "Word Study" at Union College "aims to enlarge vocabularies, to give a vital interest in words as living things, and to increase delight in acquiring new words for everyday use." Others that we point out without comment are "Advertising" (33), "The Catholic Literary Revival" (54), "Workshop in English and the Fine Arts" (24), "Music and Literature" (25), and "Representative Modern Classics" (59), which examines Newman, Carlyle and Arnold.

* * * * *

It seems appropriate, or at least permissible, to close with a few observations, not about courses themselves, but concerning matters closely related.

Serious difficulties are encountered when one tries from the bulletin material to reach conclusions concerning the requirements for the English major set up by various English departments. Many bulletins do not make any statement concerning these requirements; in other cases when require-

ments are expressed they must be translated to a common terminology, for one department will be on a four-term and another on a two-semester basis. Moreover, classes may meet oftener each week in this college than in that.

However, a rough estimate of certain facts can be reached. Thirty hours (including freshman and sophomore English) seems to be most often the goal of an English major. The number, however,—if we have interpreted the rules correctly—varies widely, from twenty-four hours (11, 19, 35, 36, 38, 43, 51, 57, 62) to thirty-three (33, 41). A few permit some flexibility within certain limits. Georgia State Woman's College requires from twenty to thirty-five hours, the University of Miami thirty-four to thirty-six, the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina from twenty-four to thirty-six, and Center College from thirty-six to forty.

Above the freshman and sophomore level specific work must be taken in each department to obtain a major. Comparative literature is insisted on by two (1, 9); Chaucer by four (17, 34, 36, 64); either Chaucer or something else, usually Shakespeare or the History of the Language, by four (1, 53, 54, 62); Shakespeare by twenty-one, although a substitution is often permitted; American literature by fourteen; Victorian literature by two (34, 48); Romantic Literature by three (17, 34, 48); Milton by six, with substitutions allowed by four (2, 9, 17, 34, 36, 53); Classicism by three (17, 34, 48); the Drama by one, although several recommend it (36); Fiction by one (17); History of the English Language by five (2, 9, 17, 21, 51); Advanced Composition by three (2, 34, 61); and Public Speaking by one (33).

The smallest departments in number of courses listed are those of the Georgia State Woman's College with ten, and Erskine and Salem Colleges with eleven each. The largest is that of the University of Tennessee with fifty-nine courses.

Finally, even though it be entirely a personal preference—the author considers the arrangement of the English courses in the bulletin of the Woman's College of the University of North Carolina the most attractive, and certainly as clear as any. He has already expressed his prejudice against the meagerness of information in the bulletins issued by the University of Miami and Duke University and the confusing complexity of that put out by the University of Florida.

It is to be hoped that this superficial analysis will lead to a wider and a much more complete and accurate survey in more competent hands. Concerning this subject at least, all the author knows is what he reads in the bulletins!

LIST OF COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES STUDIED

(According to the "List of Approved Universities and Colleges"
of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary
Schools, December 4, 1942)

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| 1. Agnes Scott College | Decatur, Georgia |
| 2. Alabama College | Montevallo, Alabama |
| 3. Alabama, University of | University, Alabama |
| 4. Birmingham-Southern College | Birmingham, Alabama |
| 5. Blue Mountain College | Blue Mountain, Mississippi |
| 6. Carson-Newman College | Jefferson City, Tennessee |
| 7. Catawba College | Salisbury, North Carolina |
| 8. Charleston, the College of | Charleston, South Carolina |
| 9. Chattanooga, University of | Chattanooga, Tennessee |
| 10. Centre College | Danville, Kentucky |
| 11. Clemson College | Clemson, South Carolina |
| 12. Coker College | Hartsville South Carolina |
| 13. Columbia College | Columbia, South Carolina |
| 14. Converse College | Spartanburg, South Carolina |
| 15. Davidson College | Davidson, North Carolina |
| 16. Duke University | Durham, North Carolina |
| 17. Emory University | Atlanta, Georgia |
| 18. Erskine College | Due West, South Carolina |
| 19. Florida Southern College | Lakeland, Florida |
| 20. Florida State College for Women | Tallahassee, Florida |
| 21. Florida, University of | Gainesville, Florida |
| 22. Furman University | Greenville, South Carolina |
| 23. Georgia State College for Women | Milledgeville, Georgia |
| 24. Georgia State Woman's College | Valdosta, Georgia |
| 25. Georgia, University of | Athens, Georgia |
| 26. Greensboro College | Greensboro, North Carolina |
| 27. Guilford College | Guilford, North Carolina |
| 28. Howard College | Birmingham, Alabama |
| 29. Huntingdon College | Montgomery Alabama |
| 30. John B. Stetson University | DeLand, Florida |
| 31. Lenoir Rhyne College | Hickory, North Carolina |
| 32. Limestone College | Gaffney, South Carolina |
| 33. Lincoln Memorial University | Harrogate, Tennessee |
| 34. Maryville College | Maryville, Tennessee |
| 35. Memphis State College | Memphis, Tennessee |
| 36. Mercer University | Macon, Georgia |
| 37. Meredith College | Raleigh, North Carolina |

38.	Miami, University of	Miami, Florida
39.	Millsaps College	Jackson, Mississippi
40.	Mississippi College	Clinton, Mississippi
41.	Mississippi Southern College	Hattiesburg, Mississippi
42.	Mississippi State College	State College, Mississippi
43.	Mississippi State College for Women	Columbus, Mississippi
44.	Mississippi, University of	University, Mississippi
45.	Newberry College	Newberry, South Carolina
46.	North Carolina, University of	Chapel Hill, North Carolina
47.	Queens College	Charlotte, North Carolina
48.	Rollins College	Winter Park, Florida
49.	Salem College	Winston-Salem, North Carolina
50.	Scarritt College	Nashville, Tennessee
51.	Shorter College	Rome, Georgia
52.	South Carolina, University of	Columbia, South Carolina
53.	Southwestern	Memphis, Tennessee
54.	Spring Hill College	Spring Hill, Alabama
55.	Tennessee, University of	Nashville, Tennessee
56.	The Citadel	Charleston, South Carolina
57.	Tusculum College	Greenville, Tennessee
58.	Union College	Barbourville, Kentucky
59.	University of the South	Sewanee, Tennessee
60.	Vanderbilt University	Nashville, Tennessee
61.	Wake Forest College	Wake Forest, North Carolina
62.	Wesleyan College	Macon, Georgia
63.	Wofford College	Spartanburg, South Carolina
64.	Woman's College of the Univer- sity of North Carolina	Greensboro, North Carolina

Report from Executive Committee of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research

The Executive Committee of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research reorganized as of March first as follows:

Chairman: President Doak S. Campbell, Florida State College for Women, Tallahassee. Secretary: Director of Registration W. L. Mayer, State College of the University of North Carolina, Raleigh. B. P. Brooks, Director of Instruction, Mississippi State College; Leo M. Chamberlain, Dean, University of Kentucky; W. H. Shaw, Superintendent of Schools, Sumter, South Carolina; Ben Wiseman, Principal, Highland Park High School, Dallas, Texas; Gladstone H. Yeuell, Professor of Secondary Education, University of Alabama.

At the time of reorganization the committee accepted with regret the resignation of Dr. Roscoe E. Parker as secretary and adopted the following resolutions.

In Memoriam

KREMER J. HOKE

We, the Executive Committee of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research, meeting in Atlanta, Georgia, on February 16, 1944, lament the death on February 6, 1944, of our able and beloved Chairman, Dean K. J. Hoke, and express our deepest sympathy with his family in their loss and ours.

We hereby acknowledge and are deeply grateful for his fellowship and splendid leadership of the Commission which he served as Chairman from 1936 until 1941 and from 1942 until his death in 1944; for his foresight and vision in the planning and development of the Southern Association Study in Secondary Schools and Colleges as a major undertaking of the Commission; and for his untiring energy and wise counsel in the organization and work of the Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education, a joint committee of this Commission and of the Commission on Institutions of Higher Education, which he served as Chairman from its organization in 1941 until his death.

We deplore the loss of a distinguished educational philosopher who possessed unusual ability to translate his philosophy into action, who combined a charming sense of humor with profundity of mind and staunchness of character, and who in the meticulous performance of his daily round of duties never lost his vision of a better world to be.

The Functions of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research *

BY B. P. BROOKS

Director of Instruction, State College, Mississippi

The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research was created by the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in the year 1935. The duties of this Commission are clearly set forth in the Constitution of the Association¹ and are as follows:

- (a) It shall study and report to the appropriate standing committee on the accrediting policies of this and similar associations.
- (b) It shall study and report to the appropriate standing committee notable procedures in administering programs of studies.
- (c) It shall stimulate experimentation and report to the appropriate standing committee significant trends in either secondary or higher education.
- (d) It shall nominate to the Executive Committee persons to succeed those whose terms expire.

Clearly, the formation of this Commission was that it might perform as a service agency for the other two commissions of the Association. Almost immediately after its organization, it began formulating plans for the Southern Association Study, commonly called the "Southern Study." This Study was made possible through a very generous grant from the General Education Board and has now been in operation about seven years. It is not the purpose of this article to review the history of the Study. It is hoped, however, that it has progressed to the point from which schools will be able to proceed with their programs of improvement.

Much of the success of the Study will depend upon the final publication of the findings resulting from the various investigations included in the work of the Study. This, of course, is considered essential as one means of making available their wider use in attempts to improve education. The Executive Committee of the Commission has approved the following publications in addition to those already published, to be issued in the order suggested and at as early dates as seem feasible.

- (a) The publication, separately or collectively, of the record of work in from one-third to one-fourth of the Southern Study Schools. The schools chosen are to be representative of the various types of schools in the Study.

¹ Article V, Section 4.

* Dr. Brooks, along with the author of the succeeding article concerning the Commission on Curricular Problems, is a member of the Executive Committee of that Commission.—EDITOR.

(b) Types of instructional procedure developed in schools of the Southern Association Study. (See page 196, *SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY*, February, 1942.)

(c) Some aspects of school and community relationships in the Southern Association Study.

(d) Implications of the Southern Association Study for teacher education. (See reference under b above.)

(e) A summary report on the Southern Association Study.

The committee recommends that the content and organization of the first four publications (a, b, c, d,) recommended should be primarily directed to aiding teachers, principals, and teacher training departments, in building programs of instruction which will meet the needs of the communities served by the school.

The Work Conference on Higher Education is another project sponsored by a grant from the General Education Board and directed by the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research and the Commission on Institutions of Higher Learning. The Conference has proved itself a valuable experience for the participating educational institutions and should result in distinct contributions to the future of education in the South. It is believed that a clearer and more comprehensive definition of educational problems will emerge from these conferences.

The Chairman of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research served as Chairman of the Work Conference Committee. The Secretary of this Commission has served continuously as Secretary of the Conferences. The committee has maintained a central office for promoting, assisting, and coordinating individual and institutional studies. It has collected information concerning studies which have been inaugurated and has disseminated through a monthly bulletin data regarding the progress of these studies. "One hundred and sixteen working committees in one hundred and five cooperating institutions are carrying forward investigations in higher education." *THE SOUTHERN ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY* has published several of the reports of cooperating colleges and these reports have been illuminating and interesting.

While the projects listed above have been laudable and eminently worthwhile, the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research is still jealous of its function to be a service agency of the other commissions. The impact of the war and the post-war period has created new and greater demands on education. New problems have arisen. Pioneer fields have opened up. If we meet these new problems successfully, we must not only recognize them, we must do something about them. If we sit back and expect them to solve themselves, we are doomed to failure. Reactionary nationalism and isolationism are ideologies of the past. Education must reconstruct

a civilization superior to the old one. The new generation in America will accept its colleges and universities with confidence only if those charged with directing the policies of these institutions meet the challenge vigorously and intelligently. Education must assure a supply of men and women of courage, goodwill, and ability, who will provide the leadership necessary to meet the staggering problems confronting the nation as it fights a war and the problems of post-war society.

Secondary schools, colleges, and universities have met the challenge by giving every assistance possible to the government in the gigantic struggle of prosecuting the war. At the same time there has been the herculean task of keeping unbroken the continuity of scholarly teaching effort. While the schools are in the throes of an awful war, they must at the same time plan for peace. While colleges have many service programs on their campuses, there are also the civilian students. Instructors, specialists in their fields, have been transferred to other departments. At the same time that readjustments have to be made to ever decreasing enrollments, plans must be made to provide for the most tremendous increase in college enrollment in history after the war. The war program has shown a need for more intensive training in specialized fields. The nation needs more technicians, more trained men in the vocations, more specialists. At the same time, any education that neglects the humanities and the liberal arts falls far short of what is sufficient as an education for members of a free society. There comes the imperative need for a study of general education. What shall we do with returning veterans who will be returning to college? New ideas need testing. New standards need adjustment. And so the list of problems goes on and on *ad infinitum*.

No one type of institution is likely to find all the answers to these problems. There is hardly an institution of higher learning in the country that has not appointed committees for the study of its problems or set up procedures for future growth and expansion. If education is a profession, each institution must have a constantly conscious responsibility to society. Advances in professional knowledge must be shared. If the results of experimentation, research, and study in each of our Southern colleges and universities is made available to others, this pooling of effort would eventuate in good to all. The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research is the agency created by the Southern Association for exactly this purpose. Let it be the clearing house for the Association. It is hoped this agency will be used more and more in this great cooperative effort to the end that all the schools may meet the challenge of the present and the future.

This seems a propitious time for institutions to re-examine themselves, rediscover the purposes for which they were founded, and to rededicate themselves to the task of educating young men and women for better citizenship, for earning a better livelihood, and for complete living.

The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research*

BY GLADSTONE H. YEUELL

Professor of Secondary Education, University of Alabama

As is well known, the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is composed of three coordinate Commissions. The Higher and Secondary Commissions are interested primarily in setting up and enforcing standards which member institutions must meet so long as they retain their membership in the Association. Thus in general terms their functions are legislative and inspectional. It should also be noted that they have adequate funds, derived from the institutions for which they legislate and which they inspect, to carry on their respective activities.

The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research is the youngest of the three Commissions, and it is the purpose of this brief article to raise a few questions in respect to its functions and make some recommendations as to its possible activities.

At the time the Commission was formed, many educational problems were agitating the higher institutions and secondary schools of the Southern area, and it was felt that some organization which was an integral part of these institutions should be set aside, as it were, to give its attention to their solution. Just how this was to be done was not very clear, nor is it at present.

Several courses were open to the Commission. It might become a service organization for the Commission on Higher Education and the Commission on Secondary Schools, in which event it would need to set up machinery to carry on research as requested by those two Commissions. In other words they would initiate the problems and some way or other the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research would attempt to find the answers. Presumably the money to carry on this work would be furnished out of the budget of the Commission making the request.

Another possibility was for the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research to look the field over, dig up specific problems of general interest, and then try to persuade the other appropriate Commission to furnish the necessary funds for the work to be done. Once more it should be noted that the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research had no money of its own for any activities.

A further function of the Commission might have been for it to investigate and correlate research work in Southern institutions. Several institu-

* Dr. Yeuell is a member of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research of the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. His thoughtful presentation of the work of this commission is especially timely now that the commission is being reorganized following the death of Dr. K. J. Hoke.—EDITOR.

tions in the area gave the degree of Doctor of Philosophy and many of them gave a Master's degree. It was felt that if some native agency, which presumably had the welfare of the area at heart, were to suggest and correlate problems of general interest, graduate faculties and students would welcome its suggestions and cooperative attacks might be made with the Commission acting as a kind of clearing house.

It was further suggested at the beginning of the Commission that, since the War Between the States, several foundations of national scope and prominence had spent vast sums of money in the Southern area in attempts to improve educational and living conditions, and it was felt that no more representative organization could be found in the area than a Commission of the Southern Association which was dedicated to the study of curricular problems and research. Other possibilities were discussed at these early meetings of the Commission.

Fortunately for the secondary schools and colleges of the South, funds were forthcoming nearly immediately from one of the foundations mentioned above for experimental work and study in secondary schools of the area. There is no attempt here to discuss this work which came to be known as the Southern Study. It is sufficient to say that it was carefully planned and well executed. Funds for this work soon will be exhausted.

Another study with higher institutions and with funds from the same source is now under way. Thus it appears to the writer that the work of the Commission to date has been quite successful, worthy of commendation, and in accord with one of its early discussed functions.

There is, however, a feeling on the part of some members of the Association that excellent as the Commission's work has been to date, the time has come when some of the earlier possibilities of the Commission should be realized and its work should be better integrated with the work of the two other Commissions. This feeling has been accentuated by the many problems in education which have arisen as a result of the war and which will grow greater as we move into the post-war era. Problems of classification, general education, vocational training, and the time element for various units of the educational system will need to pass in review before some responsible agency. Standards of various kinds will be under fire and should be solved by means other than expediency. In short it appears to the writer that it would be to the advantage of the three Commissions of the Association if ways and means were devised whereby the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research could be made to function in terms of other of its obvious possibilities. The following suggestions are made with that end in view.

1. The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research needs some kind of an income on which it can rely. Adequate planning of necessity frequently extends over more than a year's period. If the

Commission is coordinate with the two other Commissions of the Association, it would seem that certain funds should be allocated to it as a right and not on the basis of supplication. Certain appropriations would, of course, be made from time to time for specific purposes, but the basic work of the Commission should in some form or other be guaranteed. Perhaps a certain percentage of Association funds might be allocated to that purpose.

2. In order to carry out activities of a research nature a permanent office needs to be established somewhere within the area. This office needs to be equipped with the necessary machines for tabulating and facilitating the use of data. Storage space is necessary.

3. The writer does not advocate a large permanent central staff, believing that the work of the Commission in the matter of research and related activities should be allocated to individuals and institutions within the area. However, it is believed that if continuity is to be achieved an Executive Secretary should be secured who would hold office over fairly long periods.

4. Some plan should be devised within the Association whereby each Commission understands and appreciates more fully the work of the other two Commissions.

5. Finally, so far as the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research is concerned, more use should be made if possible of its members who are not members of its Executive Committee.

Assuming that the Commission had a set-up somewhat after the order suggested above, we can see in the following list a few things which it might accomplish. No argument is presented to the effect that it should do these things.

1. It should publish annually a list of pertinent research work carried on by southern educational institutions and by other responsible organizations. Some materials of the list might be briefed.

2. It should furnish bibliographies to member institutions in specific fields.

3. It should grant scholarships to graduate students, or be a clearing house for the granting of graduate scholarships, with the solution of certain problems in mind which may, or may not, have been raised by the two other Commissions.

4. It should suggest research and curricular problems to institutions or to the other two Commissions, as the result of wide acquaintanceship and correspondence within the area.

5. It should be in a position to advise with the Federal Government or State Governments in respect to educational problems within the area.

6. It should hold in trust certain funds to be expended by foundations or other agencies in educational research within the area, and be in position to set up the machinery for the wise and efficient expenditure of those funds.

7. At the request of either or both of the two other Commissions, it should attempt to find the best possible answers to problems which may arise within the Commission or Commissions.

It should be clearly understood that this brief discussion of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research may or may not reflect the opinions of other members of the Commission. The writer takes full responsibility for the ideas set forth with the end in view of focusing attention on a problem with which the Association must soon deal.

Historical Section

This section continues the policy of the QUARTERLY in publishing as rapidly as possible sketches of member schools and colleges. Preference is given to schools whose membership dates back more than twenty years, because these schools—aside from the fact that their long membership identifies them for a longer period with Southern Association history—have usually been older schools with more of history to lose if an early record is not made. The QUARTERLY is glad, however, to have sketches of all member schools and to publish them as promptly as it can. In such articles *stress facts*, and take time to get them.—EDITOR.

Historical Sketch of Mary Baldwin College

BY MARY WATTERS

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Mary Baldwin College has evolved from an ante-bellum seminary to a modern liberal arts college; its patronage, first local, has spread out to cover the state, the South, the nation, and today is international in a small way. Still Southern in "atmosphere," its outlook has broadened and sectional prejudices have softened and gradually disappeared. Its hundred years of history reflect the social evolution of the United States with respect to the interaction of classes, races, and sections; the position of women; the attitudes to public affairs; the evolution in dress, in manners and morals, and in religious emphases; as well as the evolution in the content of the curriculum, in methods of teaching, and in school organization and administration. The same is true of many other schools. Their history is an important chapter, still largely unwritten, of the history of the United States.

Founded in 1842, Mary Baldwin College is the oldest institution of higher learning for women in the Southern Presbyterian Church, and the second oldest affiliated with the Presbyterian Church in the United States. It began its existence as the Augusta Female Seminary. Opened September 15, 1842, its doors have never closed. Like many other schools in the South and West, it was established by a New Englander. The founder, Rufus W. Bailey, graduate of Dartmouth with the Master of Arts degree, student of theology at Andover and of law under the tutelage of Daniel Webster, became a minister, educator, author, and editor of considerable reputation in his generation. He had a great enthusiasm for the higher education of women at a time when the idea was generally questioned if not actively opposed. He insisted always that the education of women was more es-

sential than that of men. In addition to organizing and conducting seminaries for women both in the North and in the South, he encouraged their instruction through a magazine, *The Patriarch*, or *Family Library Magazine*, devoted primarily to the education of mothers. This publication attained a national reputation; it is significant as one of the early experiments in adult education. His enthusiasm for woman's education he passed on to his pupil, Mary Julia Baldwin, who was to undertake the direction of the Seminary in the crisis of the Civil War.

In Augusta County Dr. Bailey found a fertile field for planting his educational ideas. The Shenandoah Valley, settled by Scotch-Irish Presbyterians and German Protestants, with a sprinkling of Episcopalian Englishmen who had moved up from the older Tidewater, was a center for the education of men. Agitation for public education had already begun, led by the redoubtable Presbyterian divine and scholar, Dr. Benjamin Smith. But when the Augusta Female Seminary opened in 1842, little had been done in the vicinity for the education of women. Its objective was modest—to serve the women of Augusta County.

The Augusta Female Seminary, along with many other seminaries for women established in the first half of the nineteenth century, represented a reaction against the "finishing school" type of an earlier day. A "solid education" was emphasized in preference to the ornamental. This "solid education" followed in general the classical tradition of the schools for young men. Latin, the English Language and rhetoric, mathematics, and mental and moral philosophy were stressed, although considerable attention was devoted to the sciences, including botany, chemistry, astronomy, and natural philosophy or physics, and to French. Music and painting were included; but even in music the stress was placed on "music as a science." Greek was introduced, but apparently did not take root. Religious, moral, and utilitarian (but not vocational) ends were sought rather than esthetic or cultural in the restricted meaning of those terms. Bookkeeping for the service of the home and the estate was taught.

Under the direction of Dr. Bailey, the Seminary became solidly founded with a curriculum equal to those of the first class seminaries of that day. Main Building was erected in 1844 from funds raised by Dr. Bailey through local subscriptions and on land belonging to the Presbyterian Church. In the cornerstone of this first building was placed a copy of the Bible with the superscription, "The only Rule of Faith and the First Textbook of the Augusta Female Seminary." Courses in Bible were not included in the curriculum, however, until 1904. The college possesses the original list of subscribers to the construction of Main Building, which is a sort of roster of the old families of Staunton and Augusta County. Some contributions are listed as "beef and flour" or "plank." No subscription passed \$100. Neither then nor later has Mary Baldwin been built from large donations. In-

deed, its financial history is unusual; it has grown largely from within, through the careful administration of finances characteristic of Valley enterprise. In architecture, Main Building became the type for later buildings, whose classic simplicity and purity of line have given to Mary Baldwin College distinction in physical appearance.

In 1845 the Seminary was granted a charter by the State of Virginia, which provided for control by a self-perpetuating board of trustees. Built on land of the Presbyterian Church of Staunton, close to this church physically and spiritually, the Seminary was nevertheless subject to no control by the church. Its relation to the Presbyterian Church has undergone in recent years an interesting evolution mentioned later.

For some years after its foundation, the patronage of the school remained entirely local, from town and county, and the enrollment averaged sixty-five. There was no boarding department; the income came entirely from tuition fees, from \$10 to \$15 a session, with extra fees for music, art, and French; and the faculty, consisting of Dr. Bailey, his wife and daughters, lived from this income. The school thus retained some features of the older private academy.

Dr. Bailey resigned in 1849. His contributions were notable: he had set up and popularized a course of study that provided a "solid education" and was the forerunner of the modern college curriculum; he had secured a permanent organization and habitation for the Seminary and established its local reputation; and he had educated Mary Julia Baldwin, the "second founder." The good beginning of the Seminary, and especially its preservation in a "testing time" that followed Dr. Bailey's resignation, owed much also to the first Board of Trustees—Presbyterian ministers, lawyers, doctors, planters, graduates of Princeton, William and Mary, and the University of Virginia. Among them was Dr. Addison Waddell, son of the famous blind preacher, James Waddell, who incidentally had taught Benjamin Rush, a leader of national note in the movement for women's education. Dr. Waddell was to be succeeded by his son, Mr. Joseph A. Waddell, a pillar of the Seminary in Miss Baldwin's day, annalist of Augusta County, and author of *The History of Mary Baldwin Seminary* (1904). To Dr. Benjamin Smith, mentioned above, the early Seminary owed more, it seems, than to any one except Dr. Bailey. The president of the Board, Dr. Francis McFarland, immigrant from Ireland, graduate of Princeton, was a pioneer of Presbyterianism in the South and Southwest. On the Board he was followed by a son, and by a grandson who still serves.

From 1849 to 1863, frequent changes in administration occurred. In 1854 Dr. Joseph R. Wilson, pastor of the Presbyterian Church of Staunton, was elected to serve for a year. Woodrow Wilson was born (1856) in the Manse, the construction of which had owed much to Dr. Bailey, and was baptized in the present Chapel of Mary Baldwin. Other principals of this

period were: Samuel Mathews, William J. Campbell, Miss Rensell, William B. Browne, William H. Marquess, and John B. Tinsley. There was some decline in enrollment in the early fifties, when the ante-bellum seminaries generally reached their apogee. Local factors explain this: frequent change of administration, delay in providing boarding facilities, and local competition from schools that had such facilities. In the later fifties under the administration of Mr. Tinsley, the enrollment increased, and the Seminary began to draw students from other parts of the state, "one or two from so remote a distance as Richmond." The completion of the annexes to Main Building in 1856 provided room for twenty boarding students. Some advancement was made in the curriculum, especially in languages, music, and art.

When the Civil War came, all the schools in Staunton were closed except the Augusta Female Seminary. In 1863 it seemed that this school might suffer the same fate. The enrollment dropped to a very small number, and in the summer of 1863 Mr. Tinsley resigned, unwilling to face the uncertainties of another year. With some difficulty the Board of Trustees persuaded Miss Mary Julia Baldwin to accept the position as principal.

Miss Baldwin belonged to a prominent Virginia family which had migrated to the state from Massachusetts by way of Pennsylvania just before the American Revolution. Left an orphan at the age of seven she had been reared by her maternal grandparents in Staunton. After her graduation from the Seminary, which marked the end of her formal education, she had conducted a free school for poor children for some years to supply the lack of popular education. In spite of Dr. Smith's fight for free schools, public education did not come to Virginia until 1870, at which time he was still an active proponent and became one of the first county superintendents. Upon the death of her grandmother in 1862, Miss Baldwin opened a day school for girls for her support. Although recognized in her circle of friends, and particularly by Mr. Waddell, as an exceptionally able teacher, she had lived a relatively retired and "sheltered" life during her first thirty-four years, with no large responsibilities or experience. During her second thirty-four years she was to make a name for herself as one of the foremost women in education in the post-war South.

In 1863 the outlook for the Seminary was very bad. With few boarding students, it had become a sort of refugee camp, subject at times to army plundering. The furniture and equipment had disappeared; food was hard to secure; textbooks, published in the North, were scarce and worn. The Seminary owned only one building with capacity for twenty boarding students, and over this there rested an indebtedness of \$3,000 from the construction of the annexes. Miss Baldwin had only a patrimony of \$4,000 to invest. For some years she had to struggle with the problem of a depreciating currency. On the eve of the opening in October, 1863, Mr. Wad-

dell confided to his diary that "no man would have undertaken the business at this time nor could succeed at it." The next few years constitute indeed the "heroic" period in the life of the Seminary and furnished the stuff of which legends can be, and have been, made. But the difficulties seemed to emphasize Miss Baldwin's talents for organization and administration and to reveal the "vein of iron" in her character. The Seminary began at once to grow and prosper, and Miss Baldwin was soon pronounced "the best business man in Staunton." Her financial success made possible the achievement of her educational program.

And this program was not a modest one. From this small local Seminary she proposed to make an institution that would provide an education at the college level for Southern young women. Her chief educational mentor, Dr. William H. McGuffey, Professor of Moral Philosophy at the University of Virginia and author of the famous *Readers*, warned her that her program of studies was too advanced to be popular, just as her financial advisers insisted that her expansion was too rapid to be safe. Her boldness proved wiser than their caution. In the late summer of 1863, with Dr. McGuffey's aid, she reorganized the curriculum following the plan of the University of Virginia, "modified only so far as to adapt it to the peculiar requisites of female education."

The objective of the reorganization was to make the curriculum "equal to that of a college for men" and in line with that of the new colleges for women appearing in the post-bellum period. Studies were grouped into seven schools: ancient languages, modern languages, English language and literature, mathematics, mental and moral philosophy, history, and the natural sciences. For a diploma as a "full graduate" all the work in each field was required except that one might elect one ancient and one modern language. Although the term *seminary* was retained for practical as well as for sentimental reasons (the term *college* was still frowned upon in conservative circles), the level of work was collegiate according to the opinion of contemporary University of Virginia professors and by comparison with the curricula of women's colleges of that day.

A word more might be added as to the contents of this curriculum and its evolution. Progress in the various schools was uneven. In certain schools the level was high and continued to expand as the century drew to a close. Latin included, along with the ground work in Gildersleeve, an extensive course in reading and composition: Cicero, Virgil, Livy, Horace, Pliny, Terence, Plautus, and Juvenal. University of Virginia professors were known to say they wished the men there would read as much as the young ladies in the Seminary. For fifty years Miss Virginia Strickler was to impress the importance of Latin with her "pencil-rapping." The course in English language and literature was equally broad, even including Anglo-Saxon (first taught in this country in the University of Virginia upon the

suggestion of Jefferson and through his interest in English law) and Historical English Grammar. The modern language curriculum, especially the French, was advanced and instruction under native teachers good. In later years, when life became easier in the South and European travel possible, the study of French was encouraged as a preparation for the continental tour. The Seminary itself sponsored such tours, and Miss Baldwin conducted one in 1890. Mathematics advanced up to calculus. History followed the classical tradition with emphasis on Greek and Roman history, with the addition of English and French. United States History, introduced in 1877, grew slowly. There were no courses in economics, political science, education, or sociology. Natural science, reduced to physics and chemistry, was restricted by lack of laboratories. The school of mental and moral philosophy did not keep pace with those of languages and literature. Thus the curriculum, equal in 1863 to the college curriculum of that day, continued to advance in certain fields but made little progress in others. To meet a special demand, particular attention was given to education in the fine arts, especially music. Under excellent instructors, generally German, the Conservatory of Music became an important division of the school and a very profitable one.

The collegiate work came to be called the "university course." Few girls took the full course, although many took advanced work in selected "schools." During the thirty-four years of Miss Baldwin's administration, only eighty-eight of the several thousands who attended became "full graduates." Thus it might seem that Miss Baldwin's ideal was too far ahead of the demand for the higher education of women in the South. Nevertheless, she helped to create the demand. The "university course" set the tempo of the Seminary. Girls who did not take it were influenced and "looked with awe" on the "full graduates." Through this leaven the Seminary was to evolve into Mary Baldwin College.

Although Miss Baldwin was enthusiastic for this higher education in the liberal arts, she recognized other demands and sought to satisfy them. Mention has been made of the fine arts. Instruction in business and even in home economics was provided, although the latter did not "take." Physical culture furnished physical education in a mild form. The lack of good public schools and the objection of many parents to co-education, even where such schools existed, made the primary and secondary courses popular and caused them to be retained long after most colleges had discontinued preparatory work. Miss Baldwin made no fetish of names or labels; her program and her standards of admission and classification were very flexible to meet the uneven preparation under parents or tutors. Thus the Seminary defies definition according to any standard type of school. It was not a preparatory school, although when the four-year college became the accepted standard in higher education, it was probably regarded generally

as a superior type of preparatory school. In its emphasis on the higher literary education, it could not properly be called a "finishing school," although some patronized it for music, French, and the "cultural" atmosphere. And it was not a college, even though in certain schools it gave the equivalent (or more) of the college course. By an amendment to the charter in 1897, the Board of Trustees was authorized to grant degrees. For several years the Bachelor of Arts and Bachelor of Music degrees were conferred. This practice was soon recognized as premature, and was discontinued upon the recommendation of the administration.

"Miss Baldwin's School," as it came to be called, soon achieved a reputation that brought students from all parts of the South and the Middle West and in later years from the Northeast. The average attendance after 1870 was well over 200 and many applicants had to be turned away. Aside from its high standards of instruction in the liberal arts and music, it attracted patronage through its social atmosphere "characteristic of a Virginia home," an intangible that seemed to be enhanced in prestige by the defeat of the South in the War. Students arrived as on a pilgrimage to the social and cultural center of the Old South from which their parents had migrated some decades earlier, or Northerners come in search of elusive "Southern grace and charm."

The increase in enrollment necessitated physical expansion. In 1871 Miss Baldwin secured the old Presbyterian Church, which had been vacated for a larger one, added a story to it, and adapted it to use as auditorium, study-hall, dormitory, and dining room. By deed of the church this became Seminary property, known as the Chapel, along with the land on which it and Main Building stood. Other properties acquired became the personal possessions of Miss Baldwin (and Miss Agnes McClung, associated with her as head of the boarding department until her death in 1881), purchased from the profits of the Seminary. On lands purchased by Miss Baldwin, Brick House was erected in 1869, to be enlarged after her death as the present McClung Hall. In 1871 she erected Sky High and in the following year purchased Hill Top, a beautiful old ante-bellum mansion adjoining the Seminary. By an agreement with the Board of Trustees, Miss Baldwin assumed the small indebtedness on the Seminary, the cost of remodeling the Chapel, and the repairs on it and Main Building in return for the use of these buildings. All the income from the school belonged to her; she employed the teachers and had complete control of the administration. Thus the Board of Trustees virtually suspended its functions during her administration, meeting only to fill vacancies in its membership.

By an amendment to the charter of the Seminary in 1895, the name of the school was changed to Mary Baldwin Seminary in honor of Miss Baldwin. In 1897 she died, leaving to the Seminary by will the lands, buildings, and equipment she had acquired, along with a bequest of \$25,000. Her

gift constitutes the only single bequest of any size ever made to the school. Miss Baldwin is today recognized as the "second founder" and her birth day, October 4, is observed as Founders' Day. For thirty-four years Miss Baldwin had devoted herself with singleness of heart and mind to her school. The Seminary was her life. Through it she had helped the Old South to go forward to meet the economic and social needs of a new day without doing sudden violence to its traditions. Moreover, by assembling girls from the North and West also, her school helped to break down sectional prejudice. Gradually it raised its standards for the higher education of women in the South.

Miss Ella Claire Weimar, who had held the position of assistant principal since it was created by Miss Baldwin in 1890, was elected to succeed her as principal. But in many respects the dominant personality for the next three decades of Mary Baldwin history was Mr. W. W. King, the business manager, who had served Miss Baldwin as secretary since 1890. As business manager he exercised larger functions and more influence over the whole life of the institution than are usually associated with this office. To Mr. King much credit is due for the enlargement and improvement of the physical plant. Memorial Hall appeared in 1900, Academic in 1907, and McClung in 1910. Internal accommodations were modernized to meet new standards of sanitation and comfort. Physically, as well as academically and socially, this was a time of transition. The Seminary had lingered too long in the twilight of the Victorian Age. Old landmarks of the nineteenth century had to give way to new ideas. Outside, the flower gardens and fountains of the "front lawn" gave place to the grass-covered campus, and the white picket fence to the stone wall, although the boxwoods, symbol of Virginia gentility, remained until they were trampled down in the Woodrow Wilson birthday celebration in 1912. Inside, hardwood floors replaced carpets, and iron beds and built-in closets, the heavy Victorian furniture; but the marble-topped dressers stayed a while, and it took another generation to work a revolution in parlors and reception halls. In spite of the many changes, three old buildings, all now one hundred years or more in age—the Chapel, Main Building, and Hill Top—remained to connect the Seminary with its beginnings.

This transition period was a difficult one for the principals responsible for the academic and social administration. Lack of standardization, once an asset, became increasingly a liability. Yet the reputation of "Miss Baldwin's School," its peculiar merits, and its hold on the alumnae made it difficult to effect a change. And the Seminary lacked the money necessary to reorganize on the four-year college basis. Some insisted that it was better to be first among seminaries than to take a lower rank among colleges or lamented in prospect the loss of the "old-world mignonette flavor" of the Seminary. In the face of doubts and objections, Miss Weimar and her

faculty reorganized the curriculum of the secondary work to meet the requirements of the standard high school and separated this work academically, but not physically, from the higher courses. The latter were then reorganized and raised in some respects. Additions were made to the library and laboratories sufficient to bring them up to the requirements for the junior college. In 1916, the State Board of Education recognized the preparatory work and the first two years of college work, thus giving the Seminary the rank of a standard junior college. The Seminary was at the time offering work much beyond that required of junior colleges, and the administration was not at all proud of the status of "junior college"; the institution had regarded its work of college level for many years, and it preferred to retain, and did retain, the designation "seminary." Only the protection of its graduates brought it to ask for the recognition at all. In order to go forward, it had for a time to appear to go backward, an interesting study in perspective.

In 1916 Miss Weimar resigned, and a member of the faculty, Miss Marianna Higgins, who had had a leading part in the reorganization of the secondary school work, was chosen to succeed her. The World War checked temporarily the movement for a senior college already beginning to take shape among some of the alumnae, but its effects on the position of women hastened the movement after the war. To secure financial aid for this change the Board of Trustees made an agreement in 1923 with the Presbyterian Synod of Virginia by which the church was granted control in return for support. Thus Mary Baldwin, long considered "Presbyterian," became officially a Presbyterian school. By this agreement the institution was to make the internal changes necessary to secure senior college rating. The college was to be physically separated in a new plant to be erected on land which was bought for the purpose with Miss Baldwin's bequest. (This property, the "Apple Orchard," located on the outskirts of Staunton, is still owned by the college.) The Synod was to launch a campaign to raise \$500,000 in endowment in five years and to pay \$30,000 a year to the college until the endowment was raised. Ex-President Woodrow Wilson's death in 1924 suggested the incorporation of a memorial to him in the plans for the college. In a national campaign for this purpose only a modest sum, around \$30,000, was raised. It was later used to purchase the Presbyterian Manse, his birthplace. In 1942, this property was turned over to a national foundation and dedicated by President Roosevelt as a memorial. The Synod delayed opening its campaign for endowment and eventually the plan was given up. The alumnae had raised about \$30,000 to be added later to their contribution to the William Wayt King Building, and a local campaign had produced about \$45,000.

In the meantime Mary Baldwin was reorganized to meet the requirements for the four-year college and was authorized in a new charter secured in

1923 to grant the Bachelor of Arts degree. Dr. A. M. Fraser, pastor of the First Presbyterian Church of Staunton and President of the Board of Trustees, was elected the first President of the college. Miss Higgins became dean of the college and remained principal of the Seminary. For six years the college and Seminary were continued together, with considerable difficulty both as to academic and social accommodations. Then, in order to secure the recognition of the Virginia Board of Education for its senior college work, the Board of Trustees decided to close the Seminary at the end of the 1928-1929 session. This event marked the end of an era in "Miss Baldwin's School." It meant temporary loss for the institution and for sentimental as well as practical reasons was regretted. Nevertheless, it is recognized that Miss Baldwin's chief ambition had been to advance the higher education of women. Today it is considered fortunate that the college continues to occupy the historic buildings.

Dr. Fraser had accepted the position as President with the understanding that his incumbency should be temporary only, and he had little to do with the internal administration. His chief contribution, and a real one, lay in the maintenance of the public relations of the college with the church, the city, and the alumnae during a time of uncertainty and of considerable friction. To Miss Higgins and her faculty belongs the credit for the internal reorganization which brought the institution to the college level. It might well be recorded that throughout its history, the faculty of Mary Baldwin had represented something of the Mark Hopkins system of education. With small salaries, limited facilities, and crowded hours, teachers have devoted the individual attention to the instruction of students characteristic of the small private school and in contrast to the latter-day educational "factories." Manners and morals have been molded as well as minds. At least, that has been the objective. Some teachers of Miss Baldwin's administration continued long after her death, uniting the generations and maintaining the traditions of the Seminary in the transition to a college. Among these the names of Miss Virginia Strickler, teacher of Latin for fifty years, and Miss Martha Riddle, teacher of history, stand out.

Social regulations in Mary Baldwin retained the general features of discipline in the nineteenth century seminary far into the twentieth century. This conservatism was in part due to the location of the school in the heart of the city one block from Main Street and in the shadow of the First Presbyterian Church. The city of Staunton in general and the Presbyterian Church in particular had always assumed a sort of proprietary interest in the institution and seemed to demand a more exemplary conduct of its students than of the daughters of Staunton. Thus even as a college its social regime has changed slowly. Inside the walls, however, students were beginning to seek "collegiate" activities by 1900. Clubs, sororities, organized athletics, and college publications appeared. After a short time sororities were

discontinued as undemocratic. The Literary Society (1898), a late expression of an important college institution of the nineteenth century, was a prominent educational and social force. Along with the Y. W. C. A. and the Athletic Association, it helped to bring the student body together and to prepare the way for the present Student Government Association. Sectional and state clubs indicated the wide geographical distribution of students, but the school still retained a decided Southern flavor.

The year 1929 marks the beginning of a new era in the history of Mary Baldwin College. Dr. L. Wilson Jarman, a native of Georgia and a college administrator recognized for his work in Southern schools, particularly in his service at Queens College, became president of Mary Baldwin. Under his administration Mary Baldwin has expanded physically, academically, and socially to meet the requirements of a standard college of the first class with a rapidity that is indeed notable—particularly so, in view of the outlook in 1929. The campaign to raise money for a new plant had failed and had left sources of difference within the administration, the patronage, and the alumnae. The future relations of the college to the Synod of Virginia were unsettled; the closing of the Seminary had brought a loss of local prestige and patronage; and the depression of the 1930's made the economic security of the institution uncertain.

The Synod had continued to make small annual contributions to the college (an average of \$10,000 a year from 1923 to 1937, but less than this in the 1930's). In 1938, after considerable study by a joint committee, it was decided to return the control of the college to an independent, self-perpetuating board of trustees. By the new charter of 1939, the Synod agreed to continue to support the college "by sustaining the interest of its membership in the college, by prayer for its welfare," by a "reasonable percentage of its benevolent contributions," and by support in future plans for increasing its financial resources. Ten members of the Board of Trustees of a possible twenty-eight are elected from the bounds of the Synod and are approved by it. Thus Mary Baldwin has become a "church-related" college. In 1942, as a part of its centennial program, Mary Baldwin College entertained the Synod at its annual conference in commemoration of the hundred years of association between the college and the Presbyterian church.

The Board of Trustees since the death of Miss Baldwin has returned to be an active factor in the administration of the school. The present policy is to secure a wider geographical representation (earlier boards represented only Augusta County) and a wider representation of economic, professional, and social interests; also to admit women to the Board. Although a woman's school, no woman sat on the Board of Trustees until 1934. Now four women, including three alumnae, are members. Four states and the District of Columbia are represented on the present board of twenty members.

In financial organization and physical condition, Mary Baldwin has improved considerably since 1929. From certain surpluses and an endowment of \$45,000 raised in Staunton in 1925, an endowment fund was organized in 1930. This fund has been increased by more than \$150,000 and is today \$550,000. The total assets of the college in 1943 were \$1,500,000. Perhaps the most notable features of her financial history are that Mary Baldwin has been able to do so much with so little, as compared to many colleges in the same class, and that the preponderant part of her economic growth has been from within by careful business administration (rates are relatively moderate) rather than through gifts. For more than 50 years there have been no debts, and no deficits. The present administration has enlarged the campus and added a number of buildings. The school owned no real estate for thirty years. Not until 1940 did it come into possession of the entire city block on which most of its buildings are located. Miss Baldwin left several lots in adjoining streets, recently others have been acquired, and plans are made for further expansion as a part of the New Century Program. (Outside the city the college owns the Athletic Field and the Apple Orchard from Miss Baldwin's bequest.) Since 1930 the Alumnae Club House, which is the student social center, a residence hall, a science building, an art building, and a music building have been added. Then, in 1942, with funds raised in a campaign in Staunton and among the alumnae, enlarged by additions from the college budget, the William Wayt King Memorial Gymnasium-Auditorium was erected at a cost of \$150,000. This building seats one thousand and furnishes a long needed place for a larger physical education and social activities program.

Mary Baldwin has quickly attained maturity as a college, if one counts merely her college years; but her orientation has always been in the direction of the college. Recent evolution in the curriculum has strengthened the weak places in the Seminary courses and expanded to meet new conceptions of woman's position in society. One finds a decline in, but not a disappearance of, the classical studies; greater emphasis on the natural sciences and on history and other social studies; a recognition of practical and vocational objectives in the fields of education and business, especially in war-time, but a continued faith in the liberal arts tradition; a generous provision for the study of the Bible; a better definition of the place of the fine arts in the liberal arts college; an enlarged program of physical and health education; the institution of a course in freshman orientation; and the introduction of seminars for advanced students interested in research. Comprehensive examinations are now required of seniors in their major fields of study. The laboratories for physics and chemistry have been enlarged and placed in a separate building, a department of biology has been organized with adequate laboratory facilities, and a laboratory provided for psychology. The library has grown from 3,300 volumes around the turn of the century

to 30,000. Open stacks encourage the use of books. The faculty has been increased from eighteen to thirty-one during the present administration, and more men have been brought into the faculty.

As a result of the physical and academic improvements since 1929, Mary Baldwin was admitted to membership in the Southern Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools in 1931; in 1932 she became a member of the Association of American Colleges and of the American Council on Education; in 1938 she was placed on the approved list of the Association of American Universities; and in 1941, her graduates were accepted for membership in the American Association of University Women.

Mary Baldwin College has chosen to remain a small school. Capacity enrollment of resident students is 266. Last year the total enrollment was 336. All sections of the country and two-thirds of the states were represented. About one-third of the students are from Virginia, including the day students from Staunton. Certain interesting trends appear in the geographical distribution: Texas always has a large "delegation"; Michigan, usually a considerable one. Detroit and San Antonio often compete. The Northeast is well represented today; in the Seminary days most of the students came from the South and the West. One of the most notable achievements in recent years has been the institution and successful operation of student government, approved in the spring of 1929 and fully organized in the following session. Social regulations have been gradually revised in keeping with prevailing practices, but Mary Baldwin has remained relatively conservative, and the Student Government Association has helped to maintain certain traditions and customs as well as to promote change in others.

A unique excellence of Mary Baldwin College is the almost complete lack of "institutionalization." As a small and compactly built school it has had special advantages in preserving the characteristics of the home and the small circle of friends in the associations of faculty, students, employees, and guests. It has always been proud of its reputed "atmosphere of a Virginia home." In the heightened pace and the tensions of war these social amenities are recognized as more valuable than ever and more difficult to maintain. Hence, it has been a special concern of the administration in all phases of its program to conserve them. The college years it regards as a part of life and a way of living, not as a mere preparation for life.

The Junior College: An Institution With a Four-fold Purpose

BY C. C. COLVERT

Dean, Northeast Junior College of Louisiana State University

The junior college is the fastest growing educational unit in the United States today. The high school with its enrollment totalling over 7,000,000 achieved that growth over a very long period of years. The growth to the present number of junior colleges and their enrollment accrued over a short period of years. The number of students in junior colleges in the early 1900's was less than 100, whereas, in 1921-1922, which was approximately 20 years after the establishment of the first junior college, there were approximately 174 junior colleges with nearly 16,000 students enrolled in them. Twenty years later, 1941-42, there were 627 junior colleges with a total enrollment of 267,406. During the year of 1943-44, after two years of war, there are 586 junior colleges with the astonishing enrollment of 325,151 students.

The junior college is the people's college. It is the college for all youth of junior college age. It is a college organized to give educational training beyond the high school to all youth capable of receiving it. Courses should be offered in the junior college so as to attract 75 to 100 per cent of all youth eligible to enter junior college, or who are of junior college age and are capable of receiving further training. There should be no greater gap or barrier between high school graduation and the first year of the junior college than exists between the junior and senior years in the high school itself. The taxpayer is rapidly coming to the belief that it is just as important that his children receive a full opportunity for a junior college education as it is for them to receive a high school education. He is beginning to realize that the junior college should be as accessible to his children as is a high school. The State of California is seemingly achieving this goal by virtue of the fact that that State has 70 junior colleges and an enrollment of 169,095 junior college students. Stated another way, in round figures California has 12 per cent of the number of junior colleges in the United States and 52 per cent of the total number of the junior college students of the nation. Such a coverage of the state by junior colleges should be the aim of every state in the Union. A junior college within reach of every young man and woman in the nation would, as a result, increase the enrollment of senior colleges and graduate schools. *Higher education would be greatly popularized, and the number of youth continuing their training into the senior college and graduate school would be increased.*

Studies have shown that the location of a junior college in a particular area increases the total number of high school graduates in that area who will enter college. One such area had one hundred high school graduates who entered college each year before the establishment of a junior college in that area. Now this same area has 400 high school graduates who enter that junior college each year and 300 more high school graduates who enter other colleges. In other words, before the establishment of the junior college only 100 entered college; now since the establishment of the junior college, 700 high school graduates enter college.

The public is beginning to realize that those states and communities that have junior colleges available to their youth are raising the general educational level of their youth two years higher than that of those communities or states which do not have available junior college facilities. Communities and states without an adequate number of junior colleges are gradually finding themselves in the same situation educationally as they would have been if they formerly had had no high schools. This situation might be stated another way; namely, what chances have the people in a particular state where their youth do not have higher educational facilities in the form of junior colleges readily available to most of them against those of another state which has such junior colleges generally available. Of course, four-year colleges and graduate schools cannot be placed at the door of every high school graduate. This is not necessary, because only a fraction of the number of high school graduates desire, or will take, such professional training. On the other hand, the junior college, if placed at the door of every high school graduate can render a service to him that will benefit the individual and society.

Again let it be said that the junior college is the people's college. It is a democratic institution—an institution for the democracies by means of which the general level of the training of youth can be raised two years.

In order to meet the needs of the youth who should and can get junior college training, the junior college should have a four-fold purpose as follows:

1. The junior college should offer pre-professional courses;
2. The junior college should offer terminal and semi-professional courses;
3. The junior college should offer certain courses to students who are capable of taking them, but who have not completed high school;
4. The junior college should offer an adult education program through late afternoon and evening classes.

1. The Junior College Should Offer Pre-Professional Courses

Since the establishment of institutions of higher education in the colonies of North America and in the United States, the chief aim of such institutions

has been that of preparing youth for the professions. Very early in the educational development of this country the tradition was established that only those who desired to be trained in one of the professions would attend college. Because the college trained only for the professions, women at first were not admitted to colleges, and they were not enrolled in colleges until 1833. The subsequent enrollment of women in colleges had a rather slow development. Today, however, most institutions of higher learning offer training in the professions for both men and women. The number of professions for which training is offered in colleges and universities has increased from some three or four to scores of professions today.

As a result of this early interest of the colleges in professional training, the men and women desiring professional training have been able to secure it without much difficulty.

It was a rather natural tendency for the junior colleges to set up their curricular offerings for their two years (freshman and sophomore) as a duplicate of those of the traditional and well-established four-year colleges and universities of the Nation. The early junior college made little, if any, attempt at doing any more or less than was done in the freshman and sophomore years of the colleges and universities. The junior colleges, therefore, have developed most satisfactory pre-professional curricula. Practically all junior colleges are offering pre-professional curricula for those of their students who desire them and who are capable of receiving such training. This, of course, is as it should be. Only those high school graduates who can complete a professional course should take the pre-professional training. In other words, the freshman and sophomore students in college should not take the pre-legal or pre-medical course unless they plan to become lawyers or doctors. Experience seems to show that only about 25 per cent of the freshmen enrolled in the colleges and universities of the United States ever enter the third year (junior year) of college training. Even so, it is still of the greatest importance that all colleges—including junior colleges—offer adequate pre-professional courses suitable to their student bodies. The 25 per cent, or less, of college students who enter the professions must have excellent training. Junior colleges have been doing a most excellent job in offering pre-professional courses, thanks to the long experience of four-year colleges and universities in developing to a high degree of efficiency such courses!

As noted above, no college curricula have been developed to such a state of perfection, nor have they reached as high a degree of adequacy as have those which are called pre-professional. The same, however, cannot be said of semi-professional or terminal courses. In fact, they are in an embryonic stage and are in a process of development and experimentation. We next turn our attention to these courses.

2. *The Junior College Should Offer Terminal and Semi-Professional Courses*

In December, 1939, the General Education Board awarded a grant of \$25,000 to the American Association of Junior Colleges for the purpose of studying terminal education in the junior colleges. In 1940, \$45,500 was added to this fund by the General Education Board to further this study by the Association. Such an interest in terminal education in junior colleges by the General Education Board attests to the tremendous value of junior college terminal education. It shows further the importance of offering the proper courses for that 75 per cent of college freshmen who do not attend college beyond the sophomore year.

Terminal and semi-professional courses are those courses offered college students with the understanding that upon completion in one or two years' time the student is prepared to enter some vocation, or occupation, and earn his livelihood. The one- or two-year courses do not require further or advanced training in college. In contrast to these courses, the pre-professional courses in the junior college, most of which are two years in length, still require that the student enter a professional school to complete his training. Some courses require that the student still do one or two more years of pre-professional training in the senior college before entering the professional school.

It may be that one is "splitting hairs" to say terminal and semi-professional courses. If there is any distinction between the two, I would illustrate it by suggesting that a terminal course might be one such as a one- or two-year secretarial course, while a semi-professional course might be one in laboratory technique. For all practical purposes all such courses as mentioned above—terminal and semi-professional—might well be called terminal courses. Such is the intention in the use of the term "terminal courses" in this article.

For over twenty years after the establishment of the junior colleges in the United States these junior colleges gave very little attention to terminal courses. They were too busy trying to prove to accrediting associations, the general public, and their students that they were offering the traditional college courses (mostly pre-professional courses) on an acceptable basis. In other words, the junior colleges were too busy imitating the traditional offerings in the first two years of the senior colleges to think about terminal courses.

Of course, a few junior colleges offered a few terminal courses. The chief among them was the secretarial science course. There was a demand for stenographers and secretaries, and a two-year course in this field could adequately train junior college students for these positions. A few other terminal courses were offered.

Among the resolutions offered at the eighteenth annual meeting of the American Association of Junior Colleges at Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, in

1938 was one urging junior colleges to encourage terminal or vocational education. This resolution received scant notice and no discussion at that annual meeting. As the years passed, however, more and more junior college administrators and boards of control began to recognize the need for terminal courses. The junior college students began to recognize the dire need for terminal courses. Junior colleges began to recognize that if only 25 per cent of the entering college freshmen ever enter the third year of college, then that meant that 75 per cent of those entering college as freshmen never got beyond the sophomore year of college. It was further realized that if only pre-professional courses were offered in the junior colleges, then the only courses these 75 per cent would take would be pre-professional courses. It was only logical to conclude that if this 75 per cent did not go on to senior colleges and professional schools—and they did not—then pre-professional courses were of little value to these students.

Some may contend that even though these students take the traditional college courses for two years and do not enter the third year of such a college course, their time has still been well spent. Admittedly there is some truth in this statement. How much greater, however, would be the value of two years of college training to these 75 per cent who do not go more than two years to college, if they spent this time in training that would equip them to make a suitable living and to be worthwhile citizens in their communities. It seems reasonable to assume that a young man who cannot, will not, or does not desire to, attend college more than two years will do well to take a terminal course. Suppose he takes a radio repair course. At the end of a two-year junior college terminal course he can be trained to be a radio repairman. He is capable of working as a highly skilled workman in a radio repair shop or of setting up his own radio repair shop. It seems to be reasonable to assume further (1) that this young man will be able to earn a better living with such training than had he taken the two-year pre-legal course; and (2) that he would be a happier citizen, husband, and father with such terminal course training in radio repair work than if he had to make his living in that community with only his pre-legal course training.

Another factor should be considered as a just reason for offering terminal courses in junior colleges. Many young men and women who have just graduated from high school frankly state that they do not desire to be professional men or women. They admit that all high school graduates cannot become professional people. Many of them readily state that they are more interested in becoming a first-class well-trained laboratory technician than a doctor, or they would rather be and are more interested in being a first-class automobile mechanic with a shop of their own than in becoming a mechanical engineer. It has been stated that over two-thirds of the 7,000 students in the Los Angeles City Junior College deliberately enroll in term-

inal courses the first day they enter that junior college. The same thing is true in several other junior colleges.

It seems best that those young people who have the mental ability and other qualifications necessary, wait until they complete their high school training before entering upon their vocational training. This is best for several reasons. One is, that students upon graduation from high school are still too young to take jobs in business and industry. The war has, of course, changed this somewhat; but before the war, and certainly after the war, commerce and industry have demanded and will demand that their entering employees be at least twenty-one years old. As a result, the young person can still afford to stay in school for his vocational training for the next two years following high school graduation.

A second reason may be stated on the basis that a college-trained vocational graduate needs the general education that is secured in his four-year high school course before entering upon his terminal education course in college. A person who desires to become a laboratory technician certainly should have his high school course completed before entering upon the two-year terminal course in this field. The same can be said of practically all the junior college terminal courses.

Of course, another reason for offering terminal courses after high school graduation is that the student is older mentally and physically and is, therefore, more capable of holding a position at the age of twenty to twenty-one years of age.

Junior colleges can well afford to offer terminal and pre-professional courses in the same field. For example, suppose a junior college is located in an agricultural area. Then that junior college could render a very valuable service to the high school graduates in its area by offering (1) the first two years of the four-year course in agriculture, and (2) a two-year terminal course in agriculture. The first two years of the four-year course in agriculture (a pre-professional course) would prepare the youth to enter as a junior in the agricultural course of his choice. He would enter a senior college and be prepared to earn his bachelor's degree in agriculture. The two-year terminal course in agriculture, on the other hand, would be made up of courses which would prepare the youth to return to his farm at the end of his two-year course to be a much better farmer and thereby earn a better living on his farm. This two-year terminal course in agriculture would include courses bearing directly upon practical farming, some of which might traditionally be offered in the junior or even senior year of the regular four-year course. For instance, farm accounting and feeds and feeding—two courses usually given in the junior year of the agricultural course—might be offered in this terminal course in the freshman or sophomore year because of their value to the young man who plans to return to the farm at the end of his two-year college course.

The same principle would cause courses in child care, home nursing, etc., usually offered in the junior year of a home economics course, to be offered in the terminal course for the two-year college student. Whatever courses are needed to prepare the student who plans to go to college only two years, or for that 75 per cent who go only two years, should be offered and organized on the junior college level.

3. *The Junior College Should Offer Certain Courses to Students Who Are Capable of Taking Them, but Who Have Not Completed High School*

It is realized that this topic has many controversial points. It has many problems connected with it which need solving. After all, this group constitutes a large number of people who are anxious to secure further training. It may be that a lack of finances, death in the immediate family, or some other circumstance forced the individual to drop out of high school before graduation.

A few or maybe many years later, this same individual finds that it is possible to return to school. It seems a pretty well established custom to admit such an individual to a college course without his high school diploma, provided the individual is at least twenty-one years old. Such a person is admitted to college as a special student. The junior college might do well to offer this non-high school graduate group courses of six or more weeks in length. These short course and some semester courses should be adapted to the needs of this group. One junior college offers in the spring a special four to six weeks course for prospective brides. Such a course is of value to any adult with or without a high school diploma. It seems that should we let the public know that the junior college will, and does, offer courses to any man or woman who is of junior college age irrespective of traditional college entrance requirements, then many citizens would find time (three months, one semester, or more) in which to have their educational level raised. The state or nation would thereby benefit. The junior college is usually a local institution in that most of its students come from an area of fifty- to a hundred-mile radius of the college. This is especially true of the public junior college. As a local institution, the junior college can create local courses to meet particular needs of this group of students. The junior college should not hesitate to tailor-make or custom-build special courses for special needs of special students of this type. It is the duty of junior colleges to offer courses to meet the needs of its clientele. Its clientele is composed of all people of junior college age who are of average intelligence. This field of service to date has received little attention by junior colleges, or by any colleges for that matter.

Let us now turn from a discussion of the full time "special" student to the part-time, or evening, student.

4. *The Junior College Should Offer an Adult Education Program through
Late Afternoon and Evening Classes*

Experience has shown that adults are interested in furthering their own education if the opportunity presents itself. Wherever there is a junior college, opportunity should be given the adult population in that area for evening classes. There are a few junior colleges in the United States that have two to three times as many students in evening classes as are enrolled in day classes. This is probably as it should be. Certainly there are more eligibles among adults for evening classes than there are among high school graduates or day classes.

In order that an adequate program of evening classes may be offered the adult population by the junior college, a study of the needs of area around the college should be made. If the junior college is located in, or near, a fairly large sized city, courses in salesmanship, merchandising, accounting, shorthand, typing, business machines, and like courses might be offered. Courses in subjects appropriate for workers in industrial plants and factories might be offered. Such courses might include bench chemistry, laboratory techniques, industrial problems, management, business law, and a multitude of other courses over a period of years, which would be of benefit to the adult population. For the housewife, special afternoon classes in nutrition, child care, home nursing, and literature might be of interest. Many junior colleges offer any course for which as many as eight or ten persons ask—provided an instructor can be found. The junior college instructor should be used wherever possible for teaching these adult courses. The junior college should not, however, hesitate to use someone in an industrial concern to teach a course in safety, for instance, or to use some prominent attorney to teach a course in business law, or some expert in a large commercial concern to teach a special course in merchandising. Such a procedure aids the college in offering specialized evening classes to special groups, and it also ties the junior college in with the needs of the community or area.

There is usually a demand for courses in history, English, mathematics speech (public speaking), music appreciation, and other such courses. Some colleges have been successful in giving evening lessons in music (voice, violin, organ, piano, brasses, and reeds) to adults who cannot take them during the daytime.

It is best, as a rule, to appoint some faculty member who is qualified to promote these evening classes, to take charge of advertising and organizing the evening classes. In initiating such classes, a general call may be sent out for all those interested in evening classes to meet at the college, or some other place convenient, at a particular time. At that time one or more classes might be organized. Then further publicity may be given to the effect that enrollment is still open for a few days in this one or more classes.

Sometimes only three or four or five persons express an interest in a particular course; however, with a little effort upon the part of these few interested adults, together with further publicity upon the part of the college, the class many times can be organized with a sufficient number.

The junior college should do two things concerning these adult classes: first, it should strive to offer those adult classes for which there is a definite demand; second, the junior college should study the needs of its people and then promote the organization of such classes as will meet those needs, whether they have been asked for or not. Such a program of adult education upon the part of the junior college will certainly make the junior college a more valuable asset to the people.

"Origin, Development, and Present Status of the Texas Study of Secondary Education"

Under the title quoted above, J. G. Umstattd, Professor of Secondary Education and Coordinator of the Study, enclosed a copy of Volume I, Number 1 (January, 1944), of the "Newsletter of the Texas Study of Secondary Education." With the permission of Professor Umstattd we are reprinting almost intact Volume I, Number 1.

"Origin.—The Texas Study of Secondary Education originated at the Thanksgiving meeting of the Texas Association of Secondary School Principals in 1940 when that Association approved a preliminary investigation of the relationship between the secondary schools and the colleges in Texas. The Study became officially organized in June, 1942, after the preliminary investigation had shown need for a long-time study of various problems of secondary education in Texas. Other activities which contributed to the launching of the Study were the formal and informal uses of the *Evaluative Criteria* in some 300 Texas high schools prior to 1942, and the Texas State Curriculum Revision Program which was begun in 1933 as a cooperative enterprise by the State Department of Education and the Commission on the Curriculum of the Texas State Teachers Association.

"The organization meeting for the Texas Study of Secondary Education was planned by the Association of Secondary School Principals and was held in Dallas on June 28, 1942. The Principals' Association had invited the Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars and the Association of Texas Colleges to act as co-sponsors of the Study and to send representatives to the meeting. From the outset, the State Department of Education had given cordial support to the enterprise through Dr. J. W. O'Banion, Director of Supervision. The meeting was attended by President John T. Rowntree of the Principals' Association; President S. W. Hutton of the Registrars' Association; Dean Colby Hall and Roy Boger of the Association of Texas Colleges; J. W. O'Banion of the State Department of Education; J. G. Umstattd, who acted as consultant; and Thelma A. Bollman, who had conducted the preliminary investigation.

"Several hours were devoted to a discussion of such problems as curricula for the student who will not go to college, ways of improving guidance service, the advantages and disadvantages of a strict pattern of college entrance subjects, and probable future trends in secondary schools; and to laying plans for the first year of the Study.

"Basic Principle and Purpose.—A fundamental principle which was adopted at the Dallas meeting was that no one philosophy of education would be imposed upon the member schools by the organization and that each school would be permitted to develop its own plan of self-improvement in accordance with its own purposes. Thus the underlying purpose of the Study was

to afford the member schools the opportunity to work together toward the solution of their respective problems as they sought to serve the needs of their youth and their communities. It was realized that although many of the problems would be common to all member schools, many would be unique to individual schools, and even the common problems might have different solutions in different situations. In short, no set pattern of problems or procedures was to be imposed upon any school, but instead each school was to be left free to work upon its own problems with whatever assistance it might choose to request from the outside. Early in the deliberations of the Study, the secondary purpose of providing a channel for the interchange of ideas gradually developed. Subsequent numbers of the *Newsletter* will attempt to carry out this purpose and will be distributed to all member schools and to any other schools that wish to be placed on the mailing list.¹ Another method of interchanging ideas now being followed by various member schools is for any given member school to write to other member schools for information as to procedures being used to solve certain specific problems. The list of the thirty schools presented below offers this opportunity to any member school.

"Administration.—The plan of organization set up at the Dallas meeting consisted of two main committees—an Advisory Committee and a Work Committee. The Advisory Committee was to consist of thirty-four members, equally representative of the colleges and secondary schools and appointed by their respective associations. The original Work Committee was to consist of eight members, two from each of the three cooperating associations, one from the State Department of Education and a coordinator. During the fall of 1943 the Work Committee was enlarged to include two members from the Texas Association of School Administrators and one member from the Hogg Foundation, after these two organizations had accepted the invitation of the Work Committee to act as co-sponsors. The college members of the Advisory Committee were appointed by President C. A. Puckett of the Association of Texas Colleges in cooperation with Dean T. D. Brooks of the Agricultural and Mechanical College, Chairman of the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Coordination of that Association. The secondary school members were appointed by President John T. Rowntree of the Principals' Association with the assistance of various members of that Association.

"Advisory Committee.—The membership of the Advisory Committee appointed in the manner described above, as of January 1, 1944, was as follows:

College Representatives: R. G. Borger, Amarillo Center, Southern Methodist University, Amarillo; T. D. Brooks, A. & M. College of Texas, College Station; E. C. Dodd, Regional Representative of the Civil

¹ Requests may be sent to Coordinator, Texas Study of Secondary Education, 217 Sutton Hall, University of Texas, Austin 12.

Aeronautics Administration, Austin; Max Fichtenbaum, The University of Texas, Austin; J. M. Gordon, Texas Technological College, Lubbock; Colby Hall, Texas Christian University, Fort Worth; Richard Turrentine, Texas State College for Women, Denton; H. E. Jenkins, Tyler Junior College, Tyler; E. N. Jones, Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville; W. E. Kemmerer, University of Houston, Houston; Russell A. Lewis, Superintendent of Public Schools, Austin; H. T. Manuel, The University of Texas; A. H. Nolle, Southwest Texas State Teachers College, San Marcos; C. A. Puckett, College of Mines, El Paso; D. A. Shirley, West Texas State College, Canyon; O. A. Ullrich, Southwestern University, Georgetown; J. U. Yarborough, Southern Methodist University, Dallas.

Secondary School Representatives: J. W. Bridges, Gordon; E. H. Broadhead, Gladewater; D. U. Buckner, Pharr-San Juan-Alamo; S. W. Burk, Tyler; C. A. Cate, New London; H. S. Fatheree, Abilene; R. H. Mayfield, Tomball; W. A. Meecham, Fort Worth; R. B. Norman, Amarillo; T. W. Portwood, San Antonio; J. T. Rowntree, San Angelo; King Sides, El Paso; T. Q. Srygley, Port Arthur; J. L. Stallcup, Brownwood; J. O. Webb, Houston; W. T. White, Dallas; Yancy Yarborough, San Marcos.

“Work Committee.—The membership of the Work Committee as of January 1, 1944, was as follows: Association of Texas Colleges: H. T. Manuel and Frederick Smith; Texas Association of Secondary School Principals: C. A. Cate and John T. Rowntree; State Department of Education: Joseph R. Griggs (Succeeded J. W. O'Banion, July, 1943); Texas Association of Collegiate Registrars: W. P. Clements and Max Fichtenbaum; Texas Association of School Administrators: H. H. Chambers and R. L. Williams; the Hogg Foundation: Robert L. Sutherland; Coordinator: J. G. Umstattd. In practice it has been found advisable to have the current president of the Principals' Association to act as an additional member of the Work Committee.

“Plans were also laid for the president of the Principals' Association in cooperation with his associates to send invitations to schools to become members. The following criteria were to be observed in selecting schools to be invited the first year: membership in the Southern Association; adequacy of instructional facilities; previous use of *Evaluative Criteria*; approval by the local Board of Education; evidence of interest in the school and in the community for the improvement of the present educational offering; relative permanency of the staff; interest of the staff in improving the school; understanding and support of the undertaking by the community; and the submission by the school of a plan for its own improvement. It was recognized

that not all of these standards were entirely valid because some of them kept out of the Study some schools which could profit most from the Study. Consequently, not all of the criteria were followed in selecting the schools during the second year of the Study.

"Various details of launching the study were delegated to the coordinator, such as informing member schools about the Study and assisting during the first year if requested to do so, corresponding with members of the two committees about problems that might arise during the first year or two, making arrangements for meetings of the two committees after meetings had been approved through correspondence, answering inquiries about the Study, preparing suitable publicity materials for *The Texas Outlook* in cooperation with others, otherwise promoting the interests of the Study, and if possible, securing funds. Subsequently, a grant of \$75.00 was made by the University of Texas Research Institute upon request of the coordinator to pay for mimeographing, stenographic assistance and postage for the first year.

"*Member Schools.*—It was agreed that the number of high schools in the Study the first year would be limited to three but this number was extended to five during the October, 1942 meeting of the Work Committee. These were Sam Houston Senior High School, W. S. Brandenberger, Principal, Houston; London High School, C. A. Cate, Principal, New London; Huntsville High School, R. M. Hawkins (Supt.) and A. P. Griffin, (Prin.), Huntsville; Lockhart High School, R. L. Williams (Supt.) and Arthur Nicholas (Prin.), Lockhart; Grand Falls-Royalty High School, Mrs. J. O. Head (Supt.), Grand Falls.

"The progress of the Study during the first year was reported May, 1943, in *Bulletin I*, 'The First Year of the Study,' a copy of which is available upon request from the coordinator.

"During the February 13, 1943 meeting of the Advisory and Work Committees it was agreed that the number of schools for the ensuing year would be increased to thirty, that the senior colleges of the state would be invited to cooperate by supplying consultation services to the member schools, and that a grant of \$5,000 would be requested of the General Education Board to help defray the expenses of the Study for 1943-44. The request was to include money for conferences, travel expenses of consultants, printing, secretarial services, postage, and a limited amount of materials.

"The official list of member schools as of January 1, 1944 is as follows, with the names of the principals except in cases specifying the superintendent:

Amarillo High School, R. B. Norman, Amarillo
 Beaumont High School, Newman Smith, Beaumont
 Canyon High School, J. B. Speer (Supt.), Canyon
 Childress High School, H. M. Baker (Supt.), Childress
 Corpus Christi Senior High School, E. W. Smith, Corpus Christi

- Dickinson High School, R. Gillis, Dickinson
El Paso High School, King Sides, El Paso
Grand Falls Royalty High School, Mrs. J. O. Head (Supt.), Grand Falls
Grand Prairie High School, Mrs. Hazel Woods, Grand Prairie
Greenville High School, H. H. Chambers (Supt.), Greenville
Henderson High School, C. O. Pollard (Supt.), Henderson
Huntsville High School, R. M. Hawkins (Supt.) and A. P. Griffin, Huntsville
Lockhart High School, R. L. Williams (Supt.) and Arthur T. Nicholas, Lockhart
London High School, Chas. A. Cate, New London
Longview High School, R. L. Speight, Longview
Lubbock High School, R. W. Matthews, Acting Supt. and Prin., Lubbock
Luther Burbank Junior-Senior High School, Terrell F. Gates, San Antonio
Marshall High School, J. Davis Hill, Marshall
Mexia High School, Frank L. Williams (Supt.), Mexia
Montgomery High School, H. C. Smith (Supt.), Montgomery
Orange High School, Helen Carr, Orange
Overton High School, G. H. Andrews, Overton
Robert E. Lee High School, R. B. Sparks, Goose Creek
San Angelo High School, John T. Rowntree, San Angelo
Stephen F. Austin High School, W. D. Wilkerson, (Supt.), Bryan
Thomas Jefferson High School, Thomas B. Portwood (Ass't. Supt.) and T. Guy Rogers, San Antonio
Thomas Jefferson High School, T. Q. Srygley, Port Arthur
Tomball High School, R. H. Mayfield (Supt.) and G. F. Brautigam, Tomball
University Junior High School, I. I. Nelson, Austin
Woodrow Wilson Junior High School, Z. T. Fortesque, Port Arthur

"Problems Pursued by the Member Schools.—The problems pursued by the member schools the first year are discussed in *Bulletin I* referred to above. Some of those being pursued by member schools during 1943-44 are listed below. A discussion of the procedures for the solutions of these problems will be treated in *Newsletter No. 2*.

Guidance in the Secondary School:

The improvement of guidance facilities; The development of an adequate testing program; Mental Health in the schools; The social development of the child and youth.

The Evaluative Criteria:

The use of *The Evaluative Criteria*; The evaluation of outcomes of various types.

War-time Curricular and Instructional Adjustments:

Meeting the normal and war-time needs of youth; Making post-war problems meaningful to students.

Adjustment of Offering to Individual Differences:

Enrichment for 'the above average'; Drill for the 'below average' in the tool subjects; Helping the slow learner find his place in society.

The Pupil Activity Program:

The improvement of the home room program; The development of an adequate student council.

Pupil-Teacher Relationships:

Schools and absenteeism; Schools and delinquency; Closer teacher-pupil relationships.

School Publicity:

Interpretation of the school to the public.

General Program for the Improvement of Curriculum and Instruction:

The improvement of instruction; The revision of courses of study; Problems of Latin-American children; Improving our Negro school; An adequate physical education program; The development of better learning of factual information and the development of mental abilities beyond memorization; The place of science and mathematics; The place of the humanities in general education; The high school's contribution to the democratic way of life; How to give the best preparation for college; How best to care for the 80 per cent who never enter college; Terminal education for the non-college-going student; How to facilitate cooperation between high school and college; Articulation of school units.

"Consultation Services of Cooperating Colleges.—During the summer of 1943 a letter was sent the president of each of the senior colleges of Texas inviting him to cooperate by providing consultation services. Each president was invited to supply an amount of service equal to one-fifth of one typical college instructor's load. To date the following colleges have agreed to cooperate in this manner:

State Institutions: Agricultural and Mechanical College of Texas, College Station; College of Mines and Metallurgy, El Paso; East Texas State Teachers College, Commerce; North Texas State Teachers Col-

lege, Denton; Sam Houston State Teachers College, Huntsville; Southwest Texas Sate Teachers College, San Marcos; Sul Ross State Teachers College, Alpine; Texas College of Arts and Industries, Kingsville; Texas State College for Women, Denton; Texas Technological College, Lubbock; The University of Texas, Austin; West Texas State College, Canyon.

Independent Senior Colleges: Baylor University, Waco; Howard Payne College, Brownwood; Incarnate Word College, San Antonio; Mary Hardin-Baylor College for Women, Belton; Southern Methodist University, Dallas; Southwestern University, Georgetown; Texas Christian University, Fort Worth; The Rice Institute, Houston; Trinity University, San Antonio.

Municipal Senior College: University of Houston.

"In addition to the consultation services of cooperating colleges, the the State Department of Health has offered the services of fifteen consultants in the field of health and health education from its Division of Educational Services.

"The member schools have listed the consultants they would like to invite to their schools from nearby colleges and the colleges have listed potential consultants. The combined lists have been forwarded to member schools near the various colleges. Both the high schools and the colleges used the outline of problems presented above in listing desired or potential consultants. Some colleges have listed as many as twenty-five potential consultants while others have listed fewer. The procedure that is being followed is for the member high school to write to the consultant and arrange the schedules for visitation.

"This practice gives liberal arts, education, and other faculty members the opportunity to study at first hand the problems facing the junior and senior high schools and to help solve the mutual problems of high school and college in a cooperative manner. The technique that is being followed is that of individual and small group conferences on specific problems rather than speech making, although occasional addresses are given.

"*Finances.*—On October 23, 1943, the General Education Board of the Rockefeller Foundation granted the Study \$3,000 for 1943-44 and \$2,000 for 1944-45. This money is being used for three main purposes: conferences; travel and subsistence of consultants; and maintenance, equipment, and printing.

"Two additional agencies not mentioned above became sponsors of the Study during the fall of 1943 at the invitation of the Work Committee, the Southern Association Executive Committee for Texas, and the Division of Educational Services of the State Department of Health. The Southern

Association Committee in accepting the invitation to act as co-sponsor appropriated \$200 to the Study to cover some of the expense of secretarial services and postage. Dr. D. B. Harmon, Education Coordinator of the Division of Educational Services of the State Department of Health has made available at the expense of his Division the services of the fifteen consultants referred to above.

“Possible Future Developments.—From the foregoing discussion it is clear that the Study is still in its infancy. In the future the number of member schools will be increased, the problems being attacked will change as we emerge into post-war conditions, and in all probability new services to the member schools will be added.

“It should be stated that while nothing in the least spectacular is being attempted in this Study, it is hoped that through its cooperative procedures the member schools and the cooperating colleges may receive certain benefits and that they will share the benefits with other schools which may or may not enter into the Study in the future.”

Editorial Notes

Spencer J. McCallie

Too late for the February number came the news that Spencer J. McCallie, past president of the Association and member of the Commission on Secondary Schools ever since its formation except for a brief period resulting from the rotation in office provision of the new constitution of the Association, had been chosen by the Kiwanis Club of Chattanooga as the outstanding citizen for 1943. We feel that the terms of the award are unduly restricted in being limited either to Chattanooga or to 1943, but we reproduce the following account from the McCallie school "Tornado" published at that time.

"PROFESSOR McCALLIE HONORED BY KIWANIS

"Club Chooses Professor as The Outstanding Citizen of
Chattanooga for 1943

"On Tuesday, December 28, the Kiwanis Club of Chattanooga presented to Professor Spencer J. McCallie their award to Chattanooga's most outstanding citizen of this last year. The award was a silver vase, inscribed, 'Kiwanis Service Award, 1943. Presented by the Kiwanis Club of Chattanooga to Spencer J. McCallie for distinguished service to the educational, cultural, and spiritual life of this community, and for continued and able contributions to all movements for social betterment and good citizenship.'

"The presentation speaker was Mr. John Fletcher. Other speakers were Mayor Ed Bass of Chattanooga, County Judge Wiley O. Couch, and J. D. Hoskins, president of the University of Tennessee.

"In his talk, Mr. Fletcher said that the selection of 'Professor' as Chattanooga's outstanding citizen was unanimous. He said that achievements contributing to 'Professor's' selection were that in 1905 he was one of the founders of the McCallie School and later changed it to a non-profit organization; he is an outstanding Southern educator, and a member of the Southern Association of Secondary Schools and Colleges; he is one of the two Southern members of the Headmaster's Association. In his work for community benefit, 'Professor' is president of the Chamber of Commerce, president of the Greater Chattanooga War Fund, vice president of the Housing Authority, and a member of the Draft Board."

This Issue and the Next

It had been intended to use this issue of the *QUARTERLY* as a forum for the schools and colleges to discuss their problems in this emergency and the manner in which they were handling them. Unfortunately, the problems are so pressing and the labor involved in handling them so intense that most of the articles requested and planned failed to meet the deadline. We are hoping that some will come through in time for the August number of the *QUARTERLY*. We broadcast this statement as an expression of welcome to any person associated with a member school or college of the Association who wishes to contribute to such a forum. The article by Father Dagneau and the article by Dean Colvert give some idea as to the type of material that would be welcome for August.

Major Carr's article on illiteracy as the great challenge to Southern educators and Professor Boney's article on personnel problems of soldiers offer valuable suggestions for planning post-war education. We shall be glad to have other articles of this type for the August issue.

"The Historical Sketch of Mary Baldwin College" continues the series intended to preserve in accessible form the early history of Southern schools and colleges. This series was started in the issue for November, 1937, and we have a standing call for articles of this type.

Professor Wheeler's "These English Departments" is a type of article of which we should like to have more, in that it deals with problems appealing to teachers in high schools and colleges, whereas so much of the material in the *QUARTERLY* is of more interest to administrators than to teachers. Perhaps teachers would be more interested in the problems of the Association if they now and then found something in the Association *QUARTERLY* of more direct interest to them. Professor Wheeler decided to study college catalogues and bulletins with the idea of finding out how his courses compared with courses offered in other institutions. He found that a good many institutions did not publish their information in the form best adapted to answer his questions. He was irritated at times and amused at other times by what he found and did not find. Perhaps college catalogues are not intended to give him as specific information as he desired for the precise questions he had in mind; but what are they intended for?

Probably the first issue of a college catalogue sent out by a new college or by an enthusiastic new editor is carefully compiled and edited with the purpose of setting forth the offerings of the college as attractively as possible. Sooner or later, however, in most institutions editing becomes a routine matter, if not a matter of boredom, to some long-suffering member of the staff who suddenly awakens to the fact that another catalogue has to be published. He cannot publish until all copy is in, and at least one or two

colleagues will invariably hold him up and fail to turn in copy until the last minute or later. Furthermore, not being a specialist in the various fields of study, he finds it safe to keep description of courses down to a minimum. And so for one reason or another, catalogues sooner or later tend to degenerate into a reprinting from year to year of colorless material, letting the students know which courses are available for election and informing prospective students as to the general nature of the work they will probably be expected to pursue. Professor Wheeler would like to find a more inspiring title for a prospective student to contemplate than simply "Freshman English" or "Freshman Composition," but any sympathy he has for the student is probably wasted: all the student wants to know, having decided that he is going to such and such a college and having convinced his parents that they approve his choice, is that he is expected to continue English and certain other subjects. Since he is going to that college, whatever that college requires is what he expects; he is confident that he can do what is required if the other freshmen can.

In all seriousness, however, Professor Wheeler does state a point in regard to which colleges are not always as careful as they should be when he points out that at least one of the catalogues seemed to him definitely a case of exceedingly careless editing. It is unfortunate when in order to meet a deadline a harassed editor misrepresents his institution by serious typographical, grammatical, and other errors.

The Commission on Curricular Problems and Research

The report of the reorganization of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research and the accompanying articles by Professor Yeuell and Director Brooks are called to the special attention of Association members. The place of this Commission in the work of the Association is still somewhat to be determined. Uncertainty in regard to the place of this Commission dates from the beginning of the Commission. Before 1930, certain members of the Commission on Secondary Schools began to express the opinion that there were many problems connected with secondary education and with the articulation between secondary and higher education that justified a larger place on the annual program of the Association than the Secondary Commission could give. In course of time certain members of the Commission on Higher Education came to have similar feeling. This feeling became involved with the agitation for a new constitution that would bring actively into the work of the Association representatives of institutions desirous of more activity in the Association than the small membership of the Commissions prior to 1935 permitted. A third commission, therefore, analogous to the similar commission of the North Central Association, offered considerable help in the problem of bringing more institutions into the ac-

tive work of the Association. This idea side-tracked a thorough discussion of the need of the Association for a service commission to carry on research for the two older Commissions.

Soon after the Commission on Curricular Problems was organized grants were obtained from one of the foundations, and the Southern Association Study and the Work Conference on Higher Education were launched. These activities so absorbed the energies of the Commission that when the other commissions had investigations they wished made, they appointed special committees from their own membership with very little discussion of the possibility of utilizing the third commission for service purposes of this kind. The articles of Professor Yeuell and Director Brooks point out that it is time for the Association to decide precisely what are the normal functions of the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research. The section of the Constitution quoted by Director Brooks does not clearly state that the other commissions should refer all research problems to this commission. It will probably not be as easy now to induce them to do so as it would have been eight or nine years ago. It may be necessary for the Commission to anticipate the needs of the other two rather than to wait to be asked for a specific service.

Closely related to this problem is the problem of lack of income cited by members of the Commission. They say that each of the other commissions has recourse to dues from member institutions whereas the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research has no such claim. This statement of the case means considerably less to those of us who are members of the other commissions than it seems to mean to the brethren in Curricular Problems: the Executive Committee always answers any claim either commission makes to dues paid by its "protégé" institution with the reminder that *dues are paid to the Association and all budgets are provided by the Association and its Executive Committee*. Whether the Commission on Curricular Problems and Research waits for the other commissions to find it some problems or follows the Constitution literally and finds problems of its own to investigate, it need feel no more humble than either of the other commissions when it goes before the Executive Committee with a budget. If it is able to convince the member institutions of the Association that it is working on problems of real value, all this jittery feeling about getting a budget approved will vanish quite promptly.

The Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education

The Committee on Work Conferences on Higher Education announces the election of Professor Edgar W. Knight of the University of North Carolina as chairman to succeed Dean K. J. Hoke, whose recent death compelled the reorganization of the committee. Dean M. C. Huntley of the University of Alabama succeeds Professor Knight as recording secretary of the committee, and Professor G. H. Yeuell replaces Dean Hoke as a member of the committee. The other members of the committee are: Leo M. Chamberlain, University of Kentucky; H. V. Cooper, Vicksburg Public Schools; O. C. Carmichael (Director), Vanderbilt University; A. C. Flora, Columbia (S. C.) Public Schools; Edward M. Gwathmey, Converse College; T. H. Jack, Randolph Macon Woman's College; T. H. Napier, Alabama College; P. A. Roy, S. J., Loyola University; and Roscoe E. Parker (Executive Secretary), University of Tennessee.

The Committee plans to hold the next Work Conference in 1945, "because of the present difficulties in travel" and the fact that many studies now in progress cannot be completed before that date. The Committee voted to continue the office of Executive Secretary until the next Conference and authorized its Executive Committee to arrange details.

